Classic Arabic

as

The Ancestor of Indo-European Languages

and

Origin of Speech

T. A. Ismail


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Contents

Key to Symbols Used

AC	Affinitive correspondence
ALC	Allophonic correspondence
CA	Classical Arabic
CC	Contrastive correspondence
Cons	any consonant
C	Cons in pattern
EC	Echoic correspndence
FC	Favourite correspondence
Fr	French
Ger	German
GR	Greek
GS	Geminette stop
IE	Indo-European
Inc	Intermediate correspondence
L	Latin
MC	Morphological cognate
N	any noun
NC	Natural correspondence
OE	Old English (Anglo Saxon)
OF	Old French
OHG	Old High German
ON	Old Norse
RV	Root Verb
SKr	Sansrit
SS	Sound Symbolism
Tri cors	Trianglar correspondence
TV	Twin Verb
V	Any verb
1*	reconstructed earlier form
**	ungrammatical form

PREFACE

This book is based on a research into old languages that has taken the present writer nearly ten years. The three languages chosen for intensive study and comparison were Latin, Old English (Anglo-Saxon) and Classic Arabic. The reason why these languages were chosen is the striking similarities I have found between them while undertaking other studies upon each. I had to acertain and settle once and for all whether they were related or not and to what an extent. The research deals with other old languages like Greek and OHG only as influence or in relation to the three above.

The research proved both interesting and productive. It has been able to settle some points that had occupied my thoughts for years as well as others that had been the subject of debate among linguists for a number of decades. The book gives in concise form the main points the research has revealed. Previous knowledge of the languages involved would help but it is not a necessity. The Arabic language is concentrated upon more than the other two for we assume that most readers would know less about it than about Latin and Old English.

I should like to express my gratitude to all those who have helped and encouraged the progress of this work. The truth is that I owe a great and incomparable debt to some who are no longer with us, to the early Arab grammarians of the seventh century who have compiled with meticulous and conscientious care every word the Arabs have ever spoken or written. Theirs was a labour of love for at that time poetry and poets had all the honours. They studied language because they loved it and wanted to understand it. Without their work I could have never understood the Sound Symbolism of Classic Arabic.

I owe an equally great debt to Dr. J.Bosworth. Without his excellent work on Old English I could have never traced the relationship of OE and CA. Other dictionaries, Arabic, Latin, English on historical principles have been of immense help.

Whatever I am able to elucidate is based upon the work of others and due to their having paved the way.

T.I.

CHAPTER I

Early Inscriptions

1.1 Scattered all over the Middle East in the lands where Semitic populations had lived, inscriptions concerning different occasions in their lives have been found. The earliest of these (1850 B.C.) was found in the Sinai desert in Arabic script. It was written by the workers who worked in the turquoise mines there. It is of special importance because it reveals the link between Ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics and the writing of the phoenicians. This inscription, (in the Cairo Museum today), shows how hieroglyphics became letters. The word for house in CA is [bæyt]. So a rectangulinear thing is drawn that could be a house, but it stands for the letter B. Similarly the word for hand in CA is [yæd] (for the difference between hand and [yæd] which is a cognate see 9.13). A hand is drawn but the letter stands for Y.

Inscriptions are particularly numerous in the north where the Nabatæan civilization of Petra and Palmira had been. Many inscriptions where found in the South belonging to the civilizations of the south, and also in the north where they carried their trade and had stations all along the way. At first CA took the rectangulinar lines of the South Arabs to write their inscriptions, but when the Nabatæan civilization was destroyed and the Nabatæans dispersed among the tribes, the north Arab tribes whose language is CA forsook the rectangulinear script of the south for the more rounded one of the Nabatæans.

1.2 Through these inscriptions it became apparent that Semitic tongues share many features in common. The pattern of verbs, nouns and the pronouns, and the characteristic that while nouns and adjectives are inflectionable certain particles (see 19.6) are not. They all share the rule that allows the change of an intransitive verb to a transitive one by means of a prefix. This prefix is an [h] in Sabian and Hebrew, an [s] in abyssinian and Akkadian, while the Thamudites and Lihyanites (north Arab tribes) used both forms. In languages of the south, excluding Sumarian, it is an [š]. In CA it is a vowel usually /a/. It is believed that the prefix was originally an [s]

which was changed to [š] in the languages mentioned above and an [h] in Hebrew and some Semitic tribes, then finally it became an /a/ in CA. We have our hypothesis on the subject which we shall discuss when comparing OE, L and CA prefixes.

1.3 In the succeeding pages of this chapter we shall give some of the usages of the Semitic and Arab tribes. While we cannot go into detail (see Litmann or Dayf for a more detailed account), we shall mention only the characteristics which will help us understand the relationship of CA to L and OE. Sometimes we shall give a hint of a connection we shall draw later, but these connections we cannot begin to discuss until the different patterns of CA have become known to us.

1.4 There are three ways of making the definite article among Semitic tongues.

The first, that of the Nabatæans and Lihyanites as well as CA is to use [al]. The Nabatæans changed the position of /l/ and the vowel after it, a process that Arab grammarians call facilation, since it is easier to pronounce so. It became /le/. (cf. with Fr. le and Italian el).

The second means of forming the definite article is by placing (hæ) before the word. This is done in Hebrew and Thamudite (north Arab tribes). (cf with L hic).

The third way of making the definite article is the use of "the", " that" which were originally demonstratives, and have remained so in CA.

This is done by the Tæyans, and Abyssinians. In Assyrian it is changed to (de) (cf. with Eng."the" and Mod. German "der", "dei").

1.5 Usage among the North Arab Tribes:

The northern tribes spoke the language of Quoraysh, or languages very close to it. Nevertheless Arab grammarians of the sixth century give us regional or tribal differences in the pronuciation of a few phonemes. These are recorded as peculiarities of certain tribes or their distinctive feature, they are not give as a standard, nor are they of any extensive usage.

1. The addition of /s/ as a suffix to verbs in the second person singular (cf,with L usage).
2. The tribes of Tamiym, Assad and Rabia replaced [a] by [϶]
3. While Tye* replaced [϶] by [a], that is the opposite process.
4. The tribe of Hazil replaced [h] by [a]
5. The use of [i] instead of [a]. Interestingly this feature is found in a tribe where some replace [a] by [i], so that two opposite tendencies are found in the same tribe.
6. Hazil, Al Azd and the inhabitants of Al Madina replace [϶] by [n].
7. The change of [l] to [m] in certain words by Tye* in the definite article (see Appendix 9).
8. The deletion of the vowel stop of CA by the Tamiymites. One of the processes of facilation that Arab grammarians record. Ex : [sæa'la] becomes in their language [sæ:læ].
9. The Hamirites changed [s] to [t] in some words, they said [cæyt] instead of CA [cæys] (Mod. Eng. case).
10. Some tribes pronounce the final inflection, while others drop it. This is characteristic of the language itself since it is optional.
11. Deletion of one syl from CA patterns by Tamimytes.
    Ex.: [cæraheyah] [carahah] [gæreyah] [gæ:rah] (Mod. Eng girl).
12. They replaced /o/ for /a/ Ex.: Maria - Moria
    /i/ for /o/ [ridwan] [rodwan]
13. They changed /w/ to /y/ and /y/ to /w/
    Ex.: [qalansuwah] [qalansuyah]
    [qalawan] [qalyan]
14. Deletion of /w/ [waqadæ] [aqada] (cf. OE Woden and OHG Odin)
15. The replacement of /f/ by /θ/. This feature is found also in Tamyim as well as those immediately perceding it. They seem to have most of the differences from CA. Thus CA [fæm] is [θæm] in their language. The word is found in OE after metathisis of an (m) and (θ) as muρ and in Mod Eng as mouth.
24. The change of /t/ to /h/ by the inhabitants of Al Madina.
    Ex.: [tabout] [tabouh] (tomb). Late L. tumba
25. The tribe of Rabia changed CA [∂] to [d]
    (cf. CA [∂æcæra] Rabia [dæcara] L dicere (to say, mention)

26. There is also metathesis in tribal usage.

    Ex.: CA [sæ϶iqah] [sæqe϶a] Mod Eng thunder. In the OE word ρ undor, the order is that of CA since CA [϶] is interpreted as [n] in OE in certain environments. Compare with No. 6 above.

27. Some tribes pronounce the pronoun for the second person singular in CA which is [ta] as [te] or [ti]
    (cf, with L pro for second pers. te).
28. Rabia pronounced the pers. pro. for the third pers. pl. as [him] instead of CA [hum]
    (cf. with OE pro. for third pers. Pl hem).
29. Banouu Mazin as well as other tribes replaced [m] by [b]
    Ex.: [bæwbæh] instead of [mæwmæh] (great open area or land)
    The word has entered into L as monten and changed semantic content as well as some of its morphological features (Mod Eng Mountain).
30. Some of the tribes replace CA vowel stops by a vowel (sec. 5.13).
31. and some replace accented CA [y] by [g]
    (cf. CA adjectival ending in - iy and Germanic adjectival ending in- ig. also words like magister, CA [muSayter].
    In this word [S] and [y] have undergone metathesis in the L word after the change of [y] to [g]. The RV is [SayTara) to control, direct, hence to be master or teacher of.

1.6 The Rise of Classic Arabic (CA) :

A long time before Islam, early in the fifth century, possibly earlier, the language of Quoraysh, the inhabitants of Macca, became the dominant and most important tongue in all the peninsula. It was natural that it should, because all the tribes had to go to Quoraysh annually for trade, all the tribes had to go to Macca annually for the pilgrimage to Al Ka'ba. All poets who wanted their poems to become classics had to write them in the language of Quoraysh.

When the Dam of Maéreb broke, and the tribes of the south had to emigrate northwards, they adopted the language of Quoraysh, of the north generally, although they were culturally more advanced than the people of the

north. Centuries earlier when the Arab tribes immigrated from the peninsula, and found the lands they emigrated to already inhabited, it was their language that ousted out the native tongue. In almost every case, it was the Semitic tongue that prevailed.

The cause of this phenomenon, the prevalence of CA, or what comes closest to it, may be found in what the Arabs themselves called CA. They called it "Al Fusha" or the clear one. The verb [fæ Sa Ha] in CA means to be cear, unequivocal, pure, precise, to have power of expression, to be free from flaws of phonetic, syntactic or morphological nature[1]. It comprehends very much indeed. When we examine CA on all its five levels in the succeeding pages, we will be in a position to judged whether it deserves this title or not.

Were the Arabs who called CA "Al Fusha" primitive tribesmen, who knew little about language? To the contrary, theirs was the golden age of poetry, and CA poetry, the qasidah in particular has meter and rythum as complex as the Illiad or Odyssiy. Language as a medium of verse, oratory, prose or song was their fort, their love, their only means of expressing themselves and the art they excelled in. They loved and cherished their language; they were very proud of it. Their ear is sensitive to its least nuance, its smallest variation. When an Arab is excited, pleased, happy, disappointed or sad, he does not speak in prose but expresses himself in poetry. Those who had left the peninsula and mixed with other peoples were able to expresses their artistic taste in great feats of architecture or paintings, but those who remained could find nothing in the land that was growing drier and drier, except the language they had inherited, to satisfy their craving for expression. The khalif Omar Ibn Al Khattab, who was a lover of poetry and an very good critic says. "It is the art of a people who have no other art".

Of the hundreds of tribes that went to him on business, he distinguished one tribe by their deceased poet, "He used to praise you well", said Omar.

"And we paid him handsomely", they said.

"What you have given him has perished; what he has given you remains", answered Omar.

1.7 It is not our purpose to discuss CA poetry in this work, but we mention it to show how very old and complex it is. When reading the poetry of a Pre-Islamic poet one becomes aware, both by the very complex and sophisticated metre and rythum, and the equally complex and well made imagery that this is the apex of an old art, belonging to an old culture and not the beginning of a new one. Complex fine art does not spring overnight, it takes centuries to mature, then the poets themselves are aware that they are the end of a civilization that used to be, rather than a people creating a new one. One poet complains that there is nothing new under the sun, all has been said and written. (see Georges Zedan for more on the subject).

1.8 What was a poet like in olden times? The word in L is taken from Greek and it means to build, to do, to make. The CA cognate is derived from the verb [bænæ:] sup. [bæn yan). It has wide usage and it can mean to create, initiate, construct build. A poet was a constructor or maker of verse.

The CA word for poet is [šæ ɜæ ra], to feel, to understand, to comprehend with one's whole being, mind, heart, intuition and senses. A poet therefore, was a super-sensitive being who could see distant horizons that no one else notices, or remember those that no one else remembers.

1.9 One cannot translate to the reader the grand yet restrained beauty of CA verse because part of this beauty lies in the medium of expression, in the very powerful yet highly flexible language[2]. We shall give below a paraphrase of one image from a Pre-Islamic poet, Labid as a small example, before beginning examination of the language.

The rains have made the ruins glow, like books whose dextrous writing is ever renewed.

The image above compares two widely different entities. Ancient, deserted and fallen ruins, and books in which the history of mankind is consciously recorded. Wide apart, the two entities contain one common characteristic that is held in focus by the very fact that all else concerning these

two entities is different. This common characteristic is that they record the history of mankind. The ruins record, and the history books record, but the ruins speak a universal language that all can perceive and understand, then with each gust of wind, each torrent of rain a new line is added upon the old, so that each moment sets down its history before it expires, while the book records a limited period of time from a limited moment in time, where the writer has written, and nothing can change this picture of human history nor change the written words, once they are set down.

This wide contrast together with the single common feature have created the image. Ullman (1956) shows that the wider the angle of the image, that is the more apart two entities compared are, the greater the image. This quality in which the ancient poet excelled, he calls the hallmark of the true image. (for more translated CA verse see the verse of Omar Khayam or the verse of Job in the Holy Bible. He is called in Arabic "Ayoub" and he was the chief of Banou Quedem.).

NOTES :

1. Al Akkad defines this quality as: Al fushah is immunity from overlap, as previously mentioned, and this is the distinctive feature in pronunciation that has been actualized in the Arabic language in the points of articulation of the different sounds as it is for the letters. In the Arabic language there is no letter where overlap occurs between two points of articulation and in Arabic pronunciation there is no point of articulation where two letters coincide .

   Al Lurha A-shaira P51 1960.

2. The causes of this perfect art which made adequate its metre in its feet and its rhymes may be preceived by the study of the history of prosody in the Arabic language.... but the comprehensive cause which includes all these causes is that musical form is one of the basis of this language that cannot be separated from the divisions of its articulation, nor the divisions of its word patterns not the significance of their changes where meaning is concerned or its composition either in syntax or derivation of words. Opus cit P31.

CHAPTER II

A bird's Eye View of Language

2.1 The common word :

The common everyday word is the word that is used by all, high and low, and carried forward from generation to genreration. This chapter gives the congante forms in CA and IE languages of common, homely everyday things. These words are classified according to their usage and classification in everyday life, while in the succeeding chapters words are classified according to their linguistic properties, that is according to the linguistic feature under discussion. The purpose of this chapter is twofold. First it allows the reader a casual introduction to CA forms, and second it will allow a glimpse into the life of the IE tribes.

2.2 Heaven and Earth :

Probably two of the first things that man has learnt to name are the earth he walks upon and the heaven that rains to bring plenty, or menaced with fearful thunder.

The earth is called [arD] in CA, in OE it is eorde and also eorthan. In Du it is called aarde, in Gothic airtha in Mod German "erde". The main difference between the German and the CA word is that the latter has a more open initial vowel. We would like to draw attention to this phenomenon because we shall meet it very frequently in CA. It is the mark of old languages and has very interesting causes in the structure of the language (see VI. 8). It is found in other old languages also (see Lockwood, 1965 P.12). The German and the CA word may be described as cognates that have undergone so much change that we can recognise them only by applying the rules of correspondence that operate between the two languages compared.

If the word for earth is the same, could the word for sky be the same? The word for high cloud is in CA is [šæSa:] in ON it is sky´, in OE sceō. Could these forms be cognates? Yes, research has proved them to be the same.

The L word for sky, caelum and Fr. ciel come from a different root. The verb from which they are derived in CA is [aqala]. In L the initial vowel has undegone metathesis. It has been removed to medial position. In CA as in L the verb means to raise above. In L it is used for engravings in relief and the word derived from it for the sky. In CA it is used more often for the clouds because they seem engraved in relief against the sky.

Similarly OE hefen, heofen (heaven) is in CA (Hæ:fæn). It means in CA the limit, the furtherest, the end line, hence the highest point.

L horizontem is in CA [Hæ:gez) and it means boundary, barrier limiting line. that is the reason it came to mean in L the boundary or line between heaven and earth. The OE cog is haga and like its CA cognate it means, barrier, hedge, boundary.

2.3 If the heavens and earth have the same name for the Semitic and the IE tribes, one may expect to find other cognates. Let us try words that are considered of the oldest in Semitic tongues, that is the words that designate the features of the face and the parts of the body. What are the words for the features of the face in CA?

Mod Eng	IE Lang	CA
Head	L caput	[qobatu]
ears	porto Ger.auzon*	[ozon]
eyes	proto Ger.augon*	[æƏyen]
mouth	It bocca	[boq]
nose	Fr.nez	[anf] [naffa]
hair	Ger.haar	[ʕaƏr]

Each of the words above has proved to be a cog in CA and in IE languages. We have picked up deliberately the IE form nearest to CA to make comparison easier. The similarities are unmistakable but there are differences also. The differences in the forms above as well as in the rest of the cognates in this chapter are accounted for in the succeeding chapters of this

book. The reason is that words do not undergo changes singly and arbitrarily but by certain phonetic and morphological rules. These rules do not affect single forms but whole groups, so that it is necessary to discuss each rule and the group of words it has affected separately. In the meantime we shall pursue these casual comparisons.

2.4 Parts of body :

If the features of the face have the same names, may not the parts of the body have the same names in CA and IE languages?

Mod Eng	IE language	CA
body	OE bodig	[badæn]
neck	OE hnecca, Mod Fr nuque	[Эonuq]
back	L dors-um	[∂hahr]
wrist	OE wrist	[rasx]
stomach	proto Ger.magon*	[mæЭedah]
upper leg	L gamba	[ganb]
foot	L pedem	[qadæm]
toe	OE toe	[Tarf]

2.5 Attachement of word to RV :

Research has revealed that the words designating the parts of the body are also cognates in CA in IE languages. While most of theses words exist in IE languages as lone forms without families, in CA each of these words exists together with the RV from which it is derived, hence with its whole family. They are not lone forms but part of an integrated system. All of the words given in this chapter as well as the rest of the work are also members of a family having a RV at its head, because in CA no word occurs without its RV (we shall understand the morphological causes in due course) unless it is a loan from another language. Such loans do not make part of this study, and the rare loan word will be pointed out if it occurs.

2.6 Family Names :

Among the oldest words that Semitic tongues share are the words that designate family names and relationships. The Arabs in particular were very proud of their ancestors and studied their lineage tracing it back thousands of years. Among them genealogy is a science. So we can trust them to keep words designating family relations unaltered.

If we compare the forms below:

Mod Eng	OE	CA	L
mother	modor	[um'mun]	mater
father	fodor	[ab'bun]	pater
son	sunnu	[ibnun]	filius
daughter	dohtor	[bentun]	fillia

The CA words above make a paradigm. The L and OE ones do not. Research reveals that 1 and 2 are congates in the three languages. (12.4) but No 3 and 4, the rest of the paradigm in CA, is missing in L and OE, moreover new nouns have been introduced. Have these nouns got congnates in CA?

If we compare the forms below :

Mod Eng	CA	OE	L
1 brother	[sunuw]	sunnu (son)	-
1 sister	[sunuwatu]	sweoster (sister)	soror
2 brother	[axun]	-	avun(uncle)
2 sister	[oxtun]	dohtor (daughter)	-
3 boy	[fætæh]	-	filius(son)
3 girl	[fætæ:tu]	-	filia (daughter)
4 son	[ibn-un]	brodor	frater
4 daughter	[bent-un]	-	-

In CA each of the above forms has both a masc and a fem pattern side by side. In L and OE this is not the case, some nouns are missing, others have altered semantic content, while a criss cross movement has take place between others.

1. From this root both the fem and masc exist in CA and OE but in OE the masc no longer means brother but son, while the fem retains the same semantic content as its CA cognate. In L the fem was remained but the masc pat has been lost.
2. In this pair L retains the masc root. It means mother's brother or uncle abunculus, while OE has lost the masc but retains the fem as dohtor, and it means daughter not sister. It is a case of Inc through Ger tochter (10.1).
3. This pair is retained in L but has been lost in OE. in L it has acquired the semantic content of son and daughter not girl and boy (cf with Mod Fr where fille can mean girl also).
4. Of this pair the fem has been lost in both L an OE but the masc has been retained it means brother however and not son as it does in the CA paradigm given above.

In the above examples we may observe features of language that comparison of related languages brings before us again and again.

The same word may be used with altered semantic content in related languages, so that it may not be entirely missing but differently interpreted. The implication of this is that one should not rely on the name of a particular species to infer the place of or the existence of this species because the name may be used for another which is rather similar but not identical. For language in early times was used more casually, less accurately than it is today by the IE tribes, but not in CA for reasons we shall discover in due course.

The second point to remember is that if two words look very different in related languages, this may not be that they are from different roots, although this is possible, nor due to the influence of foreign languages upon IE languages, which is also possible, though less probable. This is not because one of the forms is a loan word, but in most cases it is due to the

different phonetic and morphological rules each language has submitted to. For example L abun and OE dohtor look quite different, but in CA they are a fem and masc from the same root. The difference is due to the fact that L has the cors /x/:/v/ and OE /x/:/h/ and that OE has an initial EC. These cors are discussed more fully in the succeeding chapters. It suffices here to be aware that cognate forms or forms from the same root need not look the same in different languages.

The OE N twinn (twin) has as cog [tawæ'm] in CA, but L gemino (twin) comes from an entirely different root. It comes from the V [gæmaɜa], which means to put together, to bring two things together, to produce together. The CA supine is [gamɜan], and its OE cog is gaderian (to gather). The difference between the L and OE words is mainly due to the presence of [ɜ] in the CA verb, and will be dealt with in due course.

Now that we have examined the immediate family or closest relations let us proceed with second degree relationships.

Mod Eng	IE	CA
uncle	OE con	[ɜæm]
aunt	L amita	[ɜæmata]
grandfather	grandpere	[gæ:d]
grand mother	grand mere	[gæd'dah]

Where uncle and aunt are concerned we find that OE eom is the cognate of CA [ɜæm] but OE faðu (aunt) is derived form the word father, it is not a cog. of [ɜæmæta]. The cog. of [ɜæmæta] is L amita. The Mod Eng words for grandfather and grandmother are taken from Fr, but they are made of a compound, the adj. 'grand' and the word 'father'. The adj. "grand" is in CA [gæ:d] It comes from the V [gæ:da], to be generous, good, kind, magnanimous. The adj. means great, grand. From the same RV come also the nouns [gæ:d] and [gæd'dah], so that what has happened is that after the loss of the original nouns, Fr. has taken the adj, from the

same root and formed new nouns with it by the help of the nouns for "father" and "mother ".

2.7 Designation of human beings :

There are two other words which mean girl an boy in CA, these are [gurw] and [gæriyah]. The latter may be easily recognized as OE girl (for change of /y/ to /l/ see V.25). The second [gurw] is not used in CA for boys but for all young male animals. It means cub. It appears after undergoing certain changes in Fr. as garcon and in It. as gazzone. Although [gareyah] still means girl in CA, it has acquired the particular sense of slave girl together with its original meaning.

The two words [mare'] and [maræ'tu] appear in OE as mægð, that is young woman or woman, and mann from which comes Mod Eng "man".

The L word for man is homo, it comes from a different root. Humus is mud or clay. Man is called homo because he is made of clay. As far back as history can peer, the Romans have been polythesis. In Roman philosophy and in Greek philosophy, we find no such hypothesis. (see B.Russel 1956). In fact this hypothesis is maintained only by the three heavenly religions. Judaism, Christianity and Islam. How did the Romans acquire such a belief? Did they have in some remote, pre-historic past a heavenly religion? This question we shall pursue further when we come to discuss more words concerning the religion of the IE tribes. The word for clay in CA is [Hæmæ']. It is a cognate of the L form. But the word for human being in CA is [insæ:n]. It does not come from the same root but from the RV [ænisa], which means to find comfort or solace in. A human being is accordingly "nice" to have around.

2.8 Comparison between CA and OE words and CA and L ones :

In this section we shall make some comparisons between CA and L words and some OE ones. The reader may have noticed that many of the cognates of the CA words compared in the last section are of the Romance branch of the IE languages, and an almost equally large number are of the Germanic branch. We have been using indiscriminately in the last section

both Germanic and Romance words. In this section the reader will discover the reason. Let us first compare some OE words with their CA counterparts.

Mod Eng	OE	CA
rod, bamboo	gyrd	[gariyd]
butter, fat	sam	[samn]
to separate, take away	scelcan	sup [šaylæn]
loathing, hatred	scuncan	[šænaæ:n]
to bend	hnah	[Hæna:]
to despise	hocor	[Haqara]
esteem	chtian	[chtarama]
effort	gehðo	[gehdu]
low, humble	héan	[hæyen]
people	wara	[wara:]
astray heretical	dól	[Da:l]

With a little imagination an Arab may comprehend some OE words. A word like "wara" needs no explanation to him, because it is the same, while an Englishman, no matter how imaginative, would have to use an OE dictionary to discover it means people.

If we compare the CA and L words below :

Mod Eng	L	CA
fault, slip	fallita	[fæltah]
fault, weakness	noxa	[næqiSah]
ashes	cinis	[cans]
to corrode	corrode-re	[qaraDa]
to beg, plead	roga-re	[ragæ:]
to rub	frica-re	[faracæ]
to say, mention	dice-re	[ðacæra]

From the above words one infers that L was equally close to CA. What then shall we consider the Arabs? Shall we consider them bilingual? People who speak both L and OE? Historically the Arabs were the contemporaries of the Ancient Egyptians. In more than one mural of the Ancient Egyptians one finds pictures of captured Arab chiefs with a long beard and dark eyes. Chronologically Arabic is the oldest living tongue today and one of the oldest languages ever spoken. It is much older than either L or OE and reaches back much further.

2.9 CA. Gr and Skr words :

In fact the further back one regresses the closer OE and L or their ancestor get to CA. The connection of CA is not a direct connection with either L or OE, but with the ancestor of these languages, that is the reason we find in CA words from L. OE or any IE tongue, we take the trouble to search into.

Ex:

Greek	CA	Mod Eng	Sanskrit	CA	Mod Eng
Kofinos	[cæfan]	coffin	sapta	[sæbɜɑh]	seven
halos	[hælah]	halo	gaws	[gamus]	buffalo
ákm	[qemah]	acme	ushas	[cšraqu]	sunrise

2.10 CA and Proto Ger :

If we compare some CA words with their proto Ger. counterpart

Mod Eng	OE	Proto Ger	CA
hay	heg	hojom*	[hašiym]
hoof	hóf	hofoz*	[ha:fer]
harvest	hearfest	root harð*	[harθ]
dawn	-	dagan ON	dagan
fish	fisc	fisioc*	[fisyx]

We notice that the proto-Ger words are closer to CA than to OE. Similarly old L is closer to CA than Mod L. In certain respects compare:

Mod Eng	Mod L	Old L	CA
tear	lacrima	dacrima	[damƐah]

2.11 CA and Mod Eng :

It is not surprising to find the ancestors of L and OE closer to CA than these languages, since we know that CA is much older, but the truly surprising thing is to find Mod Eng words rather close to their CA counterpart. How a word can travel through thousands of years, pass on millions of lips and still remain recognisable, and still retain its semantic content is almost incredible, but compare: rock / rag'ga/ call /ca:l/ tall, /ta:l/ dash : /dašša/ hurry/ hura'Ɛ/ merry /marih/ dip /dab'ba/ hop /hab'ba/ Shackle /šæcæl/ waist [wasat].

Actually some of the forms above are closer to CA than to OE. This is a very interesting phenomenon that we shall return to in due course.

2.12 Section II Fauna and Flora :

What kind of environment did the IE and Semitic tribes have ? In this section we shall compare some of the cognate forms concerning the environment, the fauna and flora that these tribes had in order to find out where they lived. One must beware however of accepting the name of a particular animal or plant as evidence that they lived in such or such a climate for very frequently a plant found in a new environment is named after what the IE tribes already knew, even if it is not the same or resembles it only a little. We have seen how family names have been adapted to suit certain linguistic requirements. The same thing occurs sometimes concerning plant and animal life, nevertheless the cognate forms we find will afford a general outline of the kind of life they led.

2.13 Wild Life:

Below is a comparison of the wild life that these tribes knew :

Mod Eng	IE lang Closest To CA	CA
lion	L leonem	[layθ]
snake	Fr serpon	[θuɜbæ:n]
shark	shark	[qərš]
whale	OE hwæl	[Huwt]
elephant	OF olifant	[al fiyl] (see 15.23)
fish	proto Ger fisioc*	[fisiyx]
salmon	AF saumoun	[sæmac]
hoopœ	OE hoopœ	[hud+hud]
leopard	L leopardus	[fæhd]
Deer	Gr. ∂ama	[∂abiy]
elk	L alces	[æyl]

We notice that the wild life common to the IE tribes and the Semitic ones contains fish. Moreover great fish that live in open waters and not small lakes. These tribes must have had access to the sea. While whale and shark mean the same thing in CA and Mod Eng. fish and salmon do not. Salmon or CA [sæmak] means any fish, any kind of fish in CA, while [fisiyx] the linguistic congante of fish means a particular kind of fish, so called because it is split open and salted. The RV is [fæsæxæ] which means to split open. Such fish is preserved and eaten in many parts of Arab land, particularly in Egypt which has a long border upon the Mediterranean. Since any kind of fish may be slit and salted the word came to mean all kinds in Germanic languages.

The word for lion in L, **Leonem** is a cog. of its CA counterpart [layθ] but the female word for lion in CA is [labuåh]. In L it is lupa, but it does not mean she-lion as it does in CA but she wolf. In both languages it means a woman of bad morals figuratively. The lion has very distinctive characteristics, so that its name could not be easily mistaken, but that the word for she-lion should come to mean she-wolf suggests that the Romans have moved to an environment where the wolf is more im-

portant than the lion. A colder, more northern environment perhaps. In fact one of the oldest of Roman legends is that Romulus, the founder of Rome was reared by a she-wolf.

2.14 Vacca :

While comparing OE, L and CA cognates one often encounters the same word given different meanings according to the environment the tribe has moved into as the example below reveals.

L vacca CA [næ:qah] OE naca

This word means in L cow, in OE sea-horse and in CA she -camel. How has this single lexical term acquired three different meanings? If we look at the V. [næwaqa] from which it is derived. It means to be of tawny and white color, to train or make an animal capable of the right movements. L has taken the semantic content denoting colour, a cow can be of tawny or red in white colour, CA has taken this meaning together with the idea of training, for this verb is used for training a she-camel to walk, but in OE where the Saxons had a nordic environment of seas and islands, the word is used figuratively to mean ship. A seahorse is to them a ship, which is what they used to ride the waves. A horse also can be white in tawny or reddish colour, and a ship can be made to sail smoothly. The three words are in accord with the semantic content of the V, but each people have used the word derived from it according to their environment and their needs. (for more such cases see below 2.25).

2.15 Animalis :

Did the IE tribes have a nomadic or agricultural existence? In other words were they herdsmen or farmers? Comparison of linguistic terms shows that they first began as herdsmen. If we compare.

L animalis CA [næƐim] pl [anƐæ:m] OE niten

The L word is a cog of the CA Pl [anƐæ:m] while the OE word is a cog of the CA singular of the same word. In all the three languages the

word means animal, particularly cattle or domestic animals. The phonetic difference between the L and OE word is due to the existence of /϶/ in the CA one, to be discussed in due course. This word is derived from the RV [na϶ima] to become afluent, to live in luxury, to have blessings, comforts. In olden times a man's wealth was estimated according to the number of heads of cattle he had. Land was plentiful, and like air or water belonged to the whole world, or later to the whole tribe. Similarly L **bobinus** is a cog of CA [bæhiym] (bovine).

2.16 Domestic Animals :

From words like the above we gather that they began as herdsmen, moving where pasture was more plentiful. If we compare the names of the domestic animals below:

Mod Eng	IE	CA
cat	OE catt	[qet]
dog	Ger kerl	[cælb]
sheep	Ger shaff	[šæh]
goat	ON geiter	[gediy]
	L hædus	[hædiy]
Ox	Gr. tawrus	[θawr]
goose	Fr.oie	[wez]
buffalo	Skr.gaws	[gamuse]
cow	L bucula	[baqarah]
chicken	OE cicen	[catcout]
foul	OE fugol	[farx]
rooster	Fr coque	[diyc]
ram	L caper	[cæbš]

From the above list it appears that these tribes had domesticated a large number of animals, the same domestic animals we have today. (for a more detailed account of the kind of horses they kept, for they trained several kinds see 17.9).

2.17 What kind of plant life did they have ? And what names did they give to plants they found in a new environment if such was the case?

Mod Eng	IE	CA
1 grass	L mugil	[nægiyl]
2 herb	L herba	[ɜušb]
3 rice	L aris-um	[arz]
4 birch	L betula	[bætulah]
5 pumkin	L pumpion	[yaqtiyn]
6 bulb	Gr bulbus	[basal]
7 flower	L flos	[zahrah]
8 flower	OE wyrt	[wærdah]
9 oak	OE oac	[ɜaq]
10 apple	OHG aphul	[abhal]
11 cedar	L cedr-us	[sadr]
12 wood	OE wud	[wuqoud]
13 berry	L baca	[barqouq]
14 melon	L melonem	[muɜæsil]
15 lotus	L lotus	[balout]

The first eight words are both morphologically and semantically cognates. The next seven are morphologically cognates but semantically there are differences between the CA meaning and the IE one. /ɜoq/no 9 is a small tree, a palm or vine from the same root. No 10 is a green conic tree, an evergreen. No 11 means lotus tree in CA. No 12 means wood for fire. No 14 means honied or honey-like. No 15 means an oak tree in CA.

Such differences one should expect when people change their environment to a new one. Fortunately we can trace their CA cognate through

the morphological rules that exist between CA and L and OE. They are useful as clues to the differences in climate and environment that the IE tribes have moved to.

2.18 There are three congnate forms for grain or seeds found in CA and IE languages. The first two concern wheat,

Mod Eng	IE	CA
1.Wheat 2. Wheat 3. corn grain	OE bere OE hweat prot Ger kurn*-un L granum	[bur] [Hantah] [gurn-un]

The difference between 1 and 2 in CA is that the first means green wheat not yet ripe, and the second means full grown or ripe wheat. 3 means any particle or small seed or grain.

The word bread means any kind of bread in Mod Eng. as [xubz] which proved to be its cognate (see 9.14) means in CA. And loaf, OE hlaf turned out to be the cog. of CA [raRiyf] (see 9.13). Did the IE have different kinds of bread? It appears they did. We are told that in OE there was a kind of bread called temmes. What was it like? Is it possible to tell? Perhaps. If one goes to Saudi Arabia, and leaves the main streets with their array of modern French breads, to a secluded side street, one finds a little old man who has an antique oven. It has a round opening inside which there is cylindrical coal-hot disc. If one asks for tamize, one gets a huge loaf, actually the size of this disc. A very tasty bread.

2.19 **Diet :**

What was the diet of these peoples, what did they eat with bread? From the above we know they ate fish, foul and meat. Fr. mouton is the Cog of CA [da'en] (lamb meat). L arizum is the cog of Ca [arz] L lactus is from the RV [lacæ]. The V means to milk in CA. The Mod. Eng word milk is the cog of CA [mæraq]. but [maraq] does not mean milk in

CA but broth, any liquid in which one can put crumps of bread or cook with is called [maraq]. L fructus is CA [facihah]. Ger fleish turned out to be a cog of CA [laHm] (see 9.5) It means meat. It, torta turned out to be the an abbreviated form of CA [fatiratu].

2.20 Housing :

Judging from the list of cognates above, these people had an adequate diet. People do not have this varied diet before they have reached a fairly high standard of civilization. Perhaps if we look at the kind of houses they lived in, we would be able to know more.

Mod Eng	IE	CA
great building	OE hearh	[SarH]
house	OE hus	[xos]
castle	OE castle	[qasr]
fortified city	Gr zaun, OE tun	[Hesn]
house	L domus	[Da;r]
Home	OE ham	[Himæ:]
tower	OE burg	[burg]
cottage	AF cota	[coux]
private hall	OE hal	[xulwah]

From the list above one infers that they had a variety of buildings some grand, some humble, and that they had to fortify their buildings, possibly against other tribes or peoples.

CA [Himæ:] does not mean home but a place where one feels safe. The precincts where one feels safe. It comes from the RV [hamæ:] to defend, and in ancient times it included the precincts of the whole tribe. In OE it meant a whole village, hence place names like Birmingham or Hamburg, which is made of two words ham+burg. It means tower for defence. Its CA cog is [burg + Hami].

2.21 Titles :

Just as the IE had buildings for different people of different status in society, they had different names for people in different strata of society.

Mod Eng	IE	CA
1. Sir	It el senior	[a`sayed]
2. sheriff	OE sheriff	[šariyf]
3. Mr	Gr, Her	[hur]
4. noble	L nobilis	[nabiyl]
5. fellow	OE feologa, ON felaga	[falæ:H]
6. master	L magister	[muSayter]
7. king	L rex	[rae's]
8. Slave	L sclavus, OE Thrall	[sæbiy]

From the above one infers that it was a society of many different gradations and that they had slaves. No 5 comes from the RV [fælaHa] which means to till the earth. It is used for someone who works with his hands. While 6 comes from the RV [Saytara] to dominate, to be in control of. Gr. Her simply means freeman. But in a society that had slaves it was an advantage to be a freeman. Slave or CA [sæbiy] comes from the RV [sæbæ:]. It means to take captive in war, to make a slave as a result of being conquered in war. It appears that the first slaves were prisoners of war.

What did the IE call foreign tribes? When the Romans met the Germanic tribes they called them 'barbar'. When the Arabs first met the tribes of North Africa they called them [barbar]. The word comes from the RV [barbara] which mean to make quick and incomprehensible, inchoate sounds . Any language that one does not understand may seen to be quick and incomprehensible. The verb also means to make loud and angry noise. One of the names of the lion in CA is [al berbar] because it makes such noises. Quiet possibly, when meeting an enemy in battle in olden times people made such loud cries, in which case the epithet would apply equally well. Later however it acquired the meaning of uncivilized whereas at first it had only the meaning of foreign or incomprehensible.

2.22 Exclamations :

Exclamations do not carry semantic content in the same sense that a word like "horse" does, nevertheless they carry an expression, a message of some sort. It may be inchoate and sometimes equivocal, hence more subject to chance than words that designate a particular object. They are often characteristic of particular peoples and epochs. Do we find any such utterances common to CA and IE languages?

When the Saxons were distressed or grieved they cried wa. When the Arabs were distress or grieved they cried [wæ:]. When the English found something nonsensical or were indignant, they said (bah, bah) while in OF it is (ba) or (bah). In CA it is [bæx + bæx].

The Romans have the expression "ah" to express surprise, joy, exitment or emotion generally. In CA a short [ah] expresses surprise but a long [a:h] expresses grief, pain or disappointment. The expression hæc in L means true, granted or admitted. In CA it has the same meaning but phonetically it is [Haq]. The RV is [Haq'qa] (to be true, actualized, confirmed) .

The expression "ahem" immitating a cough is usually to draw attention in Mod Eng. In CA it is also to draw attention but it has the added connotation sometimes of a cynical "I don't believe it".

When the Germans, even today, like something they say schön when the Arabs, even today, like something they say [zeyn]. The word is the cog of the Ger one which has undergone some changes. The RV is the V [zæ: næ] to be lovely, beautiful, ornamental etc.

2.23 Taxes and bribes

CA [gæbeyæh] is Fr. gabelle derived from L gabulum or tax. and CA [bartala] is OF bribe. or Mod Eng to tribe. Unfortunately taxes and bribes are two of the marks of a civilized society. So one can infer that the IE had a central government and that it had rules or laws, that officials were bribed to allow citizens to escape these laws, and that they paid taxes.

2.24 Time :

Mod Eng	IE	CA
day	yahr Ger. jour Fr.	[yawm]
hour	Ger. stunde	[sæ϶atu]
while	OE hwile	[hæwl]
year	L annus	[϶æ:m]

From the words above one notices that morphologicaly Ger. yahr is the same as CA [yæwm] or proto-Ger. Jerom*. It is also the same as Fr. jour. Semantically they seem very different. The cause of the difference is that [yæwm] in CA means a period of time. It can be twenty four hours or a million years. It has been intercepted in Ger as a year, in Fr. and most Arabic dialects as twenty four hours, but in old scripts its semantic content is simply a period of time.

L hora or OF ure from which Mod Eng hour is derived is a cognate of OE hwile and CA [Hæwl]. The RV is [hæwala]. It means to turn over. [Hawl] is therefore a turning over of time from one year to another on the same date. Thus from Easter to Easter would be one [Hæwl]. From the 1 of November to the same date the next year would be one [Hæwl]. It is one year, but not a calendar year, but a year marked by a particular date. In L it has acquired the meaning of one hour and in Germanic languages an indefinite period of time, a while.

The word for hour in CA is [sa϶atu]. It is a cog of Ger stunde. In both languages it means one hour or sixty minutes. While the word begins with /s/ in CA , it begins with /š/ in some Arabic dialects (norh African) as it does in German.

The word for year, that is twelve months is [϶æm] in CA and annus in L. (For cor of /϶/:/a/see 8.19). Although the words that designate time are sometimes not identical in CA and L or CA and Germanic languages,

they are morpholocilly cognates. There is here as in the above the same criss-cross movements liable to take place between languages that have been separate channels communication for thousands of years. Fo discussion of the Mod Eng Word day, its CA cog [DoHa:] and L dies which is not a cog. (see 20.26).

2.25 The religion of the IE and Semitic tribes :

There are clues that point to the fact that these tribes were monotheistic at some remote period in history (see Dayf. 19) but that with the passage of time their religion was corrupted to idol worship and totenism.

What deities did the IE and Semitic tribes have in Common? Deities they worshipped before separation? The chief deity among the Semitic tribes who was worshipped by both the south Arab tribes and the north Arab ones (the Nabataeans) is called [wod'dæn]. He has a wife and son [wod'dæn] was the moon god, his wife was the sun, and their offspring was a star, it is said Venus.

Among the Germanic tribes this deity is called Woden in OE and Odin in OHG. He has a wife and son, but while in South Arab mythology he is the moon god, in Germanic mytholoy he is the god of thunder, the raging one. This deity has changed attributes, possibly, because of the change in environment. In the desert night, the moon looms great and supreme. It is unrivalled and is therefore the chief deity, but in a colder climate, it is only fitting that the chief diety should become the thunderer. We have clues however that point out that in earliest times he was the moon god among the Germanic tribes also.

There was a belief among these tribes that the moon could affect the brain of man (this great mesmerizing moon must have been in a warm cloudless sky). From this belief comes the L adj. Lunaticus (lunatic) which is derived from the N luna (moon). From the same belief comes the OE adj wod, which means mad and is derived from the N Woden. It means affected by Woden. Here we have a clue that the Germanic tribes also believed Woden to be the moon god in earliest times.

The next deity whose name is found in both, Arab and Germanic mythology is CA [mænæh] Proto Ger. mænon, OE mona and L luna. [mænæh] is the goddess of destiny or death among the South Arab tribes, but among the L and OE tribes it has become the moon goddess after woden has become the thunderer. (for the change of /m/ to /l/ in L see 9.3).

There are two more goddesses whose names in CA are [al Latty] and [al ɜozza]. The names of these two have been merged together in L for phonological reasons(1) and produced the lares or household gods. Since our main interest is the language rather than the religion of the IE tribes we shall stop here, but those interested in pursuing the subject will find several more.

2.26 Climate :

What kind of climate did the IE tribes have and how do they describe it? The words that describe the climate are not cognates in CA and L, nor in L and OE. These differences when referring to the climate marks to us the beginning of a separate existence for each group. First, we shall refer to the words what have remained the same, then proceed to those that have changed semantic content or altered it a little. We find the words describing rain the same, for rain can be identified as rain anywhere. But the different varieties found in CA should be significant to us.

Mod. Eng.	IE	CA	Meaning in CA
rain	OE regen	[rægsan]	heavy downpour, great thunder
shower	OE scur	[šar'rah]	lesser pouring
rain	pluvia	[bal'lah]	wetness
water	proto Ger watar*	[maTar]	rain water

From the above it appears that the words for water and rain are the same, though, as it is often the case, L has chosen the word containing [p] and [l] which are favourites in this language, as we shall soon see, (cf. the same tendency in the choice of filius and filia above).

Mod. Eng.	OE	L	CA
summer winter	OE sumor OE winter	este hiems	[sayf] [šitae']

The word for summer in OE is sumor. Its morphological cognate is [somour] in CA, and it does not mean summer at all in CA but conversing in leisurely manner at night. How has this change come about? Let us go back to the RV from which it is derived. The RV means to graze at leisure, to graze in plenty. To the Germanic tribes summer was the season when their cattle could graze in plenty. The RV is [saemira] the N is [sæmar] (cf. with Mod. Eng. summer] the Pl. we have above is [somour]. This V is used figuratively by the Arab tribes, to whom the pleasant moment is the night, to mean conversing in leisurely manner, or reading poetry by night. It still retains the original meaning of grazing in plenty however, when it is used for cattle or camels.

The L word for summer 'este' seems very different from CA [Sayf]. The RV of the CA word is [Safa:] to be clear, of clear skies, hence summer is the season of clear skies. To seek a summer resort, or to spend the summer in CA is [estafa] in L it is estivo. The word is a V+ pref. It is from this verb, derived from [Safa:] that the L word for summer is derived. So for the Romans and the Arabs summer was a season of clear; or relatively clear skies, while for the Germanic tribes it was a season of plenty of pasture. They may or may not have had clear skies but they have preferred the word oriented towards pasture, which was probably the basic difference between their summer and winter or the difference that mattered to them.

The word for winter in OE is derived from the same root as water above. It is significant however because this verb designating rain may be used to denote the falling of snow or gravel or any particles as well, in quick succession. Winter was then the season of hail, snow as well as rain. (for the medial n see 12.5).

The word for winter in L comes from the RV in CA [hamara] the N [hamar] means heavy rain. There is no implication of other particles here. The CA word for winter comes from the V [šatae:] to rain, to become cold. It does not signify great rainfall however like [hamara] or [maTara]. From the above one can perceive the differences in climates.

The comparisons we have given in this chapter all suggest that while the Germanic tribes have moved to a much colder climate, the Romans have moved to a slightly colder one and the CA tribes to a warmer one. One must bear in mind that change of environment can occur in two ways. The tribes may leave their original home and seek new land, or the land itself may change climate. We are told the Arab Peninsula had at some remote period in history green valleys and snow-capped mountains. Untill today one can see the river beds where once flesh waters flowed.

The word for hail, CA [hayl] and thunder CA [θæ϶eqah] have proved to be cognates in CA and Germanic languages. L tonitru is also a cognate of thunder, but not L nivis (snow) or OE snáw which are cognates of CA [naw] which means dense fog of intermittent occurrence. The phenomenon we observe here is the same we have observed earlier. It is the choice of old words to refer to new phenomena. It suggests that the snow they found was new to them or at least different from the ice they had known. The word for snow in CA is [θælg]. It comes from another RV.

2.27 Referent :

Before ending this section there is one point that is important to keep in mind. It is the difference between the change of referent and the change of semantic content. A word may change referent without changing semantic content as the example of [samar] above. Similarly the word for snow in L comes from the V [naewa;] to alter course, to be on and off. In CA Arab sailors use it for fog that is now in one place and now another, in L and OE for snow which suggests that snow was not always there in winter but intermittent. The semantic content of 'intermittent' remains. It is a change of referent, that is a change in the practicle application of the word rather than its meaning or the meaning of its RV.

2.28 The home of the IE tribes :

There has been many theories concerning the home of the IE tribes. These theories were all of inconclusive evidence. Today we have more definite evidence and more conclusive facts. If the IE and Semitic tribes were at one time in the same place and judging from their language, this must have been a considerable length of time, then they had the same home. Most historians agree that the home of the Semitic tribes was the Arab Peninsula. Supposing we adopt this hypothesis for the IE tribes also, in this case we would be able to account for several phenomena that were left unaccounted for by the previous theories.

The first of these is the reason the IE tribes have left their original home and roamed the earth. It is because their peninsula was drying up. It was imperative that they seek new land and new pasture.

We know from the history of the Semitic tribes that such movements do not occur by all the inhabitants at the same time but in waves. Historians compare the peninsula to a reservoir that yields part of its waters whenever it is overfilled. Between each wave and the succeeding one there can be several centuries (see P. Hitti P19, 1956). It accounts for the fact that some IE languages like Sanskrit are much older than others.

If we look at the map of the old world we find the peninsula occupies a central position between three continents. From there one could move in any direction. This accounts for the spread of the tribes to different parts of the earth.

We notice that the tribes who have emigrated in remote periods of history have differed much from the mother language (which we shall examine in due course) while those who have emigrated within the pale of history have differed less. The Arab tribes which have not emigrated at all have preserved their language. There may be exceptions and intervening factors but on the whole these are the general observable facts.[2]

2.29 Clues from the four cardinal points :

If the IE tribes had the Arab Peninsula as their original home, where to did they emigrate immediately after it? For we know that tribes do not go very far from their original home unless they find tribes in the immediate vicinity or unfavourable natural conditions. Let us compare the names of the four cardinal points in CA and in IE languages to find out more if possible.

Mod. Eng.	CA	Meaning of RV in CA
east	[cšræq]	sunrise, burst of light
west	[Rarb]	to go or wander far from home
north	[šæmæ:l]	comprehensive, to hold, contain all
south	[gænoub]	to be on the side, beside

The four cardinal points, with the exception of the east, which is the same in CA and IE languages are not the same in CA and L or OE. While the east, where the sun rises is an unmistakable orientation to all, the other three points should reveal significant differences to us. Let us examine first those of CA. To go west is to go far from home in foreign lands, the adj from this same V means stranger or foreigner. We know that many of the early waves went to the west in the direction of Egypt. This is historically correct (see appendix). South of CA [gænoub] denotes that besides them, to the south a few tribes remained, which is also historically correct. But [šæmæ:l] which means all containing, comprehensive denotes that by far the greatest number of of tribes went northwards. There is a very old Arabic proverb which says "united them with their north" [šaml]. It implies to unite people who have scattered far, and were never expected to see each other again. It suggests that those who went north were never seen again.

Let us examine the three cardinal points in OE which are not cognates of their CA counterpart. South or OE suð, OHG sunð, comes from the CA V [sadae:] to desert, to forsake. The adj therefore means deserted land. So to the south was the deserted land.

West, OE westan, has as cog[1] in Ca [wasaTan] which means the middle. It comes from the same RV as waist. This RV is [wasaTa] to be in the middle or in central position. So they have gone to the central position of a particular land. North or OE narð is in CA [næðir] and means the highest point. (this word has entered Mod. Eng. within the pale of history a second time and is used in astronomy. It is nadir. So they have gone to a land that has a high point northwards. This high point which they seem to have used as marker is in the middle of the land, and to the northwest of their original home. That is the reason they gave the word [wasat] or middle the meaning of west. Now if we look at the map of the old world we find that the land that fits this description is Turkey. It is Turkey that is to the northwest of their original home and that has a natural border pointing northwards. Turkey is also the part of Europe through which they could cross over without any need for ships, for we assume that they moved on to find more fertile pasture for their cattle and horses, and drove these on before them.

For more on the life of the IE and Semitic tribes see Chapter XVIII.

2.30 The five features of cognate forms :

In the preceeding pages we have juxtaposed certain word and maintained that these were cognates. We have given no proof to substantiate our claim because the object of this chapter was to introduce the subject casually. Cognate forms however must have five features in common in order to be accepted as such :

1. They must have the same consonants.
2. They must carry the same pattern.
3. They must come from the same RV.
4. They must have the same referent.
5. They must have the same semantic content.

If any of these five criteria is missing, then the two forms may not be accepted as cognates unless the missing feature can be accounted for. Consonants are discussed in Chapter IV, VIII, IX, X, patterns are discussed in Chapters III, XI, XII, XIII, and Verbs are discussed in Chapters VI, VII.

The relationship of a word to the V it is derived from is discussed in Chapter XVII and causes of change are further discussed in Chapter XII, XIII, XIV.

Footnotes :

1. L changes /ɜ/ to /l/ in certain contexts and changes /z/ to /r/ so that the names of the two goddesses became phonetically very close. The result was a merger producing lares, or household gods.

2. Modern archeology maintains that this part of the world contained the earliest civilizations, but not having the linguistic evidence does not maintain that these are the ancestors of the IE tribes. In the OLD WORLD Dexter Perkins Jr. and Patricia Daly (p 73) say :

   'While perhaps too much emphasis has been placed on the "Fertile Crescent" and the "Cradle of civilization" the fact remains that the Near East is where it all began, and we all are the inheritors.'



CHAPTER III

AN OUTLINE OF THE TOPOLOGY OF CA

3.1 The five levels :

CA is an huge language, of vast dimensions. This giant language was not conceived piecemeal, according to immediate needs nor built fortuitously. On every level one can perceive very fine and meticulous planning. It was conceived and built on one master plan, on a grand scale, into one self- integrating, self-maintaining system. Each of its five levels is contigent on the one preceding it, while at the same time it regulates and holds it in check. Its five levels are therefore interdependent and interlocking. These five levels are the semantic, the phonological the morpholoqical, the syntactic and the level of sound symbolism.

3.2 Co-ordination of the five levels :

What we shall try to do here is to give an outline of how the five levels work together. We shall begin by the smallest significant unit. On the level of (sound symbolism) SS, the first level on which the other four are built, the significant unit is not the morpheme but the phoneme. Each phoneme is a sound hieroglyph of an action or condition. One or more phonemes denote an action or condition depending on their role in the SS of the language. Together they give us a root. Roots are always made of consonants, the vowels are the mobile part of the word and are the markers of accentuation, elongation or mitigation on the SS level, while at the same time, they are the markers of tense, number and category on the morphological and syntactic levels. They are not part of the root. For example the CA V [baeladae] (to build) has as root b + l + d. The Vl applied to it after the root may be deleted, reduced, elongated or changed to a diphthong, depending on the category, tense or number of the word desired, and such application is regulated by the morphological and syntactic rules of the language.

3.3 The Verb :

The most important single item after the phoneme is the verb. A CA-verb is like a sun in a solar system around which many planets revolve. Each RV (root verb) has two (twin verbs) TV, whose semantic content

form a three level gradation with it. One TV gives more mitigated semantic content, the other a more augmented one. The patterns which decide such differences are regulated by the system of SS. The TV may differ from the RV in the contrast of tras vs intran. Ex [daefaeɘa] (to push back), [dae:faɘa] (to defend by word or hand) [daef' faɘa] (to make pay), to compel to pay) [ganaesa] (to be of harmonious or uniform quality) [ga:naesa] to harmonise with, to sympathise with [gan' naesa] to make diverse things become of one kind or race CA [gens] Pl. [genous], L gens, genus are derived from this root Apart from the TV there are also frequentative V which play an important role in the SS of the language. Then there are numerous prefixes, which are productive and may be applied to the different V to give new or altered nuance according to need. They change intransitive V to trans, reflexive, or impersonal Vor change the semantic content. But whatever the category, or whatever prefix is applied all these derivations have the same consonants as the RV and are committed to it.

3.4 The morphological level :

On the morphological level there are numerous patterns to give numerous nouns, adjectives and adverbs or other particles. Each pattern gives the category as well as semantic and syntactic information to the root to which it is applied.

Ex. RV [qahara] N [qa:her] (conqueror) doer of action, masc. Sing N [maqhur] (overpowered) [qouhir] (conquered) N [qahr] (compelling), N [qawaher] (impossible, very high mountains) N [qohratu] (wicked woman) N [qaha: r] (all conquering) [al qaherah] (Cairo, the victorious city).

Morphologically each CA word is made of two parts; a constant part, and a mobile one. The constant part is made of the consonants of the RV or a V which it is derived from, this gives it its semantic content and keeps it attached to its RV. The mobile part are the Vl, these give it its shape and pattern in accord with the category it belongs to. These patterns are decided by the morphological rules of the language. Thus one can recognise any of the patterns of the language, not through the inflectional endings, (these give us case and number) but through the internal pattern, that is the number of Vl, their reduction, deletion or elongation together with the stress pattern. For stress also changes like Vl according to category. Tense in V is also indicated by the same system, that is, through change of Vl and change in stress pattern.

Remnants of this system may be found in German umlaut and Mod Eng. V like sing, sang sung. In consequence there are no suffixes apart from the inflectional in CA (no-ship, - less, - tion, or abilis, - culus). What have become suffixes in L and OE are full adjs or particles in CA as we shall see in due course. Similarly there are no compound nouns in CA. There is an immense lexicon which affords almost limitless power of exprestion through its RV, TV, V+ Pref. and verb paradigms.

3.5 V Paradigm :

While each RV controls and regulates its family, it is in turn committed to a V paradigm. AV paradigm is made of several verbs which are related to each other on the phonetic level by being minimal pairs, that is differing by only ones phoneme, and are related to each other on the semantic level by having one or more semantic features in common, that is having a common denominator. This phenomenon, or V paradigm is due to the fact that the langauge is constructed on a system of SS. A V paradigm gives a gradation of meaning, and allows very accurate and fine expresion. So that a V is committed horizantally to its family, while vertically it is committed to the paradigm it belongs to. For example the V [Ta: lae] (to grow tall) is committed on the horizantal level to its two TV [tal' la] (to protrude, to look out) and [Talae:] to sweep over, hence to polish, to make bright, together with the rest of their families. Some of the words that may be derived from the RV are given below :

[Tawil] (tall) adj, [Tawala] V (to lengthen), [Toul] length, [Tael] adj (having influence or power) [mustatil] a parallelogram [tawl] wealth, power afluence, [taelah] enmity, [aTal] (to make long, too long) V+pref.

While the V is committed to its family and TV as we have shown above it also belongs to a paradigm of minimal pairs.

Ex [Ta:la] (to grow tall), [Ta:fæ] to go ground, to hover around, [Ta:ra] to fly around, hover around [Ta:hae] to be lost inside, roam inside [Ta:ɜa] to follow [Ta:sae] to step over or above, [Ta:qa] to surround to have power or control over, to have the capacity for.

We notice that all these V denote movement into space from a particular object or point and in relation to it.

3.6 Ordering in a CA dictionary :

Since words do not occur singly in CA but each belongs to a family with a RV, CA dictionaries are not ordered according to alphabetical order of words but of RV. When one desires to look for a word, one looks for the unmarked form of the RV, and under that heading one would find all the family of this V. Now supposing one cannot find the word one is looking for, so long as one knows the semantic content of the RV, one can tell its meaning through this knowledge together with the knowledge given by its pattern. Let us take any word. like [gamiyl]. The RV would have the consonants /g + m + l/. Under this heading one would find the RV is [gamila] (to become, lovely, pretty, all over). The pattern of the word we are looking for says that it is the undergoer of the action, masc. sing. that it can be used as an adj. Therefore we know that whatever it describes is pretty, comely. The OE cog is cymlic, while the Mod Fr. cog is joli. (In Syrian dialects [J] replaces [g] as it often does in Fr.).

The next heading after the family of this V is completed would be the next V in the paradigm [gam'ma] while the one preceding it is [gamaƐa] (OE) gaderian, (to gather) and the one preceding that is [gaemuda] to consolidate, to congeal togther. All of them have the element of gathering together in different ways.

The language is built in such a way that each level corroborates the one above it, while restricting it and committing it at the same time. If a word changes a single phoneme, it is liable to be drawn into the sphere of the next V in the paradigm or the V which has the new phoneme, but this V has already got another word of this pattern. There is no place for it. Such a word would have to die out and the place it has left would be occupied by a new form that follows the rules of the language. So long as the RV has not been lost, such a procedure occurs automatically whenever such a word is introduced.

The native speaker can produce any word he needs, so long as he knows the pattern, the RV and its semantic content. The patterns are the same for all V of the same description or V pattern and in consequence the process continues and has been productive throughout the ages.

3.7 The system of economy in CA :

CA has a huge lexicon, and a vast potential in its morphological and syntactic rules. While it has this very powerful machinery for expression, it has an equally powerful system of economy. We cannot go into detail here, since it is outside the scope of this work, which is a comparative study, but we can point out the main theory on which such economy is based. This theory is based on the fact that the significant unit is the phoneme. Therefore no phoneme is added or removed without change in the nature of the morph concerned. In modern languages the significant unit is the morph, whatever it contains of phonemes that may not be needed for expression are a remnant of what has been inherited through generations of usage. In CA, which is one of the oldest of languages in the world, such remnants had not yet accumulated, the significant unit is the phoneme, a cluster would confused the early users of the language.

The second rule of economy in CA, the corollary of the above, is that the absence of any items is as significant as its presence. In other words CA makes use of the negative as well as the positive features of language. (+ x) has its significance, exactly as (- x) has its significance. The deletion of a V1 denotes a change of pattern, just as the addition of a V1 or semi-V1 denotes a change of pattern, a change of pattern signifies change of category. On the syntactic level, the presence of a V in the sentence is as significant as the absence of a V in the sentence. Every move has its significance. Change of stress pattern has its significance on all levels, that of SS, which dominates the semantic level, and also on the morphological and syntactic level which are dependent on it. CA is both an analytic and inflectional language and both potentials of the language, the analytic and the inflectional are made use of.

As we proceed with this comparison of CA with L and OE, the reader will be able to get a glimpese of how this very old language functions, and see actualized before him the remarks made about it in this outline.



Chapter IV

The Consonants of CA

4.1 Form of writing :

The first difficulty that research encounters in a comparative study of CA, L and OE is that CA has an alphabet diffemt from the other two languages. This ancient scrip was taught by the Nabatæans to the people of central Arabia, when their civilization was destroyed and they dispersed among the northern tribes. Ultimately it is the same script that the Phoenicians had taught to the Greeks, for the Phoenicians, a Semitic, sea-faring people, taught their script wherever their boats landed for trade. The Greeks taught their script to the Romans just as the Nabataeans taught theirs to the people of central Arabia, and each people have altered and adapted it to their needs, so that it is today two different scripts, as different as L is from CA.

Consequently we still need a practical means of comparing L with OE and CA. There are two imperfect media before us, the Roman alphabet and the internaltional phonetic Alphabet. (IPA), neither is the ideal medium, but IPA would afford greater accuracy, where CA is concerned. L and OE are written in the same alphabet, with a few exceptions and the exact quality of their Vl is not known.(see next chapter on Vl) so that it is better to write them as we find them, that is in the Roman alphabet. But L and OE (Germanic language generally) do not have the same phonemes. Such a medium is liable to mask differences, and make things oversimple. This is a thing we can do nothing about, but that one must bear in mind. On the other hand, using the IPA for CA might make the similar appear very different, in other words it might make cognate forms appear to be more different than they really are through the difference in the medium of writing. This also is a point one has to bear in mind.

Let us compare one L and one OE word with their CA cognates to see low this may occur, and to keep it in mind during future comparisons. The CA word [Heniyah] means compassion. It comes from the RV [Hænæ:] to bend, and it means to bend in compassion, bend tenderly over people. Its L cog. is venia (let us put aside the cors of /H/ : /V/ to be discussed in due course). The two words do not seem very close. Now supposing we write the same CA word in Roman alphabet it would come out (henia). Here it appeares much closer. Supposing we write the L word in IPA it would be approximately /veniya/. Let us take now an OE word and a CA one. CA

[duwn] (down under, low, below) from the V [dænæ:] sup [dunuwan] and OE ðún. Again it may be a matter of difference in medium of writing. In OE a long Vl often replaces a diphthong, as we shall have occasion to observe again. One must make allowance for such differences of medium whenever they occur. In early times there was no standard spelling and each scribe wrote as he saw fit.

If the difference of medium serves to mask resemblace between cognate forms. Then why not use the Roman Alphabet for CA? Why use IPA at all? The reason is that in CA diphthongs may be reduced or masked, if we do as they are in some L and OE words, and these diphthongs are of particular importance in comparisons. They are responsible for differences on more than one level and are produced in CA by the morphological not the phonetic rules of the language. We have to be able to see how they function, how they enable us to derive N and other categories from RV.

While we have taken IPA as basis, we have to add the following phonemes [T D S]. These are palatalized alveolar plosive phonemes and contrast with [d t s] which are much more to the front. We have to add also glottal /H/. It is a sound that existed in OE, but OE scribes wrote both [H] and [h] using the same grapheme for both. Then we have to introduce the two graphemes [ɜ] a pharyngal, nasalized, resonant, and [R] its twin a fricative, rather close to French r, but pronounced further back. In CA there are two /k/ sounds. A uvular, aspirated plosive, pronunced far back in the throat, which we will use [q] to signify, bearing in mind that it is not the same as IE qu. There is also a velar stop, very close to Mod Eng /k/ which we shall use the grapheme /c/ to signify. We use /c/ because both L and OE use C for this sound, and we do so to signify that it is the same.

Then we have to use the grapheme [ðh] to represent a palatalized interdental fricative which contrasts with [ð] as the other palatalized sounds contrast with their correspondents in CA.

4.2 The consonants of CA :

There are twenty seven consonants in CA, given in the table opposite with the nearest sound to each in Modern English. Where a dash is placed, it implies that there is no sound that could be approximatley accepted as almost the same in Modern English. A question mark denotes that the sound may be accepted as aproximatley the same by a speaker of the language who is not a linguist. Why do we stipulate tht the listener should not be a linguist? It is because a linguist would expect theoretically a phoneme to have clearly defined phonetic features. He has to in order to get the

definition of a phoneme. Whereas we in this study have to do the exact opposite. We have to take the sounds of three languages which have been separate channels of communication for over eight thousand years, compare and connect them. In other words we shall be dealing all the time with approximations. Sounds which were at some remote period of history the same , which may be described as having the same phonetic features, which would sound the same to the untrained ear, but which would not be considered the same by someone studying meticulously their phonetic properties.

The truth of the matter is that sound is vibration carried on air and with the passage of time change of person and place it has to change a little. That it remains at all recognisable after the lapse of thousands of years is indeed wonderful. To illustrate the point. Let us take the consonant "b". It can be described as a bilabial stop in the three languages under discussion as well as in Mod Eng. But accurate analysis would reveal differences and gradations that exist and are peculiar to each language (see Gleason 1969, P 268, 260) Fortuantely such differences are of no consequence for the purposes of this study which deals with greater and more general changes. (for b in Old Saxon, the sister language of OE see Boswroth 1983, P. 64).

Each of the three language under discussion has its own phonemes or sounds (we use the two words as synonyms in this study) and its manner of pronouncing them. If we take an example from CA and Mog Eng. The Mod Eng word "car" comes ultimately from the CA V [car'ra]. In CA which is based on SS each sound is clearly and distinctly pronounced. The final /r/ as a GS is pronounced as a trill sustained, then a second trill. It has to be so pronounced to symbolize the movement of running, going and coming which is the semantic content of the /r/ (see 20.6) on the level of SS. In Mod Eng one does not hear the final /r/ at all because Mod Eng is no longer based on SS. In Modern language semantic significance begins on the morphological level.

Consonats /b	Name in CA beh		Nearest Word in Mod. Eng. bat
Con in CA	Mod Eng	Gra-pheme in CA	Phonetic features
b	bat	ب	voiced, bilabial, stop
t	teeth	ت	voiceless, dental stop
θ	thin	ث	voiceless, interdental fricative
g	grim	ج	voiced, velar stop
H	-	ح	voiced, glottal fricative
x	Scotish 'loch'	خ	voiced, velar fricative
d	dean	د	voiced, dental stop
∂	that	ذ	voiced, interdental fricative
r	run	ر	voiced, alveolar, trill
z	zebra	ز	voiced, alveolar fricative
s	scene	س	voiceless, sibilant fricative
š	sheen	ش	voiced, groove fricative
S	sound?	ص	voiceless, palatalized, fricative, aspirated
D	dire?	ض	voiced, alveolar, plosive, palatalized
T	tall?	T	voiceless, alveolar, plosive, patalized
ɘ	-	ع	voiced, pharyngal resonant, nazalized
R	(Fr - r)?	غ	voiced, alvelar fricative
f	fate	ف	voiceless, labio dental fricative
q	-	ق	voiceless, uvular, stop, aspirated
c	cat	ك	voiceless, velar stop
l	lamb	ل	voiced, lateral flap
m	meat	م	voiced, bilabial, nasal
n	noon	ن	voiced, alveolar nasal
h	hair	هـ	voiceless, glottal fricative
w	woe	و	voiced, bilabial semivowel
y	yell	ى	voiced, semivowel, resonant

The Consonants of CA :

There are twenty seven consonants in CA, which are given in the list above together with the nearest sound to each in Mod Eng. Where a dash is placed it implies that there is no sound that may be considered as

similar in Mod Eng of the CA one. A question mark signifies that the sound may be accepted as close.

4.3 The order of consonants in the CA alphabet:

In the table opposite we find each two or three phonemes have the same shape, that is the same grapheme is used for them. They are differentiated from each others by the presence and position of the dots over or below them, or the complete absence of dots. This grouping has proved very helpful in suggesting how these phonemes must have sounded in earliest times. The early grammarians did not group them in this manner nor give them this sequence arbitrarily or by accident. We have found in the comparison of L and OE with CA that these pairs correspond with each others in different environments. If we put aside other differnces for the moment, differences which will be discussed in due course, and look at some of the forms having these pairs and trios.

Ex : the first three consonants /b t θ/ are placed together as a tio. Where we find /b/ in final position in a CA word we may find /t/ in its OE cognate form.

Ex : CA [Solb] OE style (steel), OE heaort (heart) CA [qalb] Mod Eng get CA [gæ:bæ]

In L the sound [θ] is missing. Where we have [θ] in CA we may have (t) in L.

Ex : L tegula, CA [θuqalah] (stone, weight, slab) L trio (three) CA [θælæθah].

Why do we state that we may be getting such a correspondence and not that we are sure to get it? The reason is that the kind of correspondence that occurs depends on a number of factors. One of these is that both L and OE have been greatly influenced by other languages. A phenomenon to be discussed in due course.

The next three consonants placed together in the CA alphabet are [g H x]. We find that in OE/H/ written as /h/ and /h/ as the nearest sound to it often replace /g/, and the opposite tendency also exists.

Ex : OE burg, burh, CA [burg] (tower)
OE hreod, gryd, CA [gariyd] (reed, stick)

The consonant /x/ is missing in L and OE, it is often replace by /H/. Since /H/ is not found in L also by its nearest correspondent /h/. The same correspondence may be found in OE.

Ex : L hebes, CA [xæ:b] (dull, helpless, sluggish) OE dohtor, CA [oxtun] (daughter).

In the CA alphabet [d ∂] are placed as a pair. Where we find (∂) in CA we find (d) in L. because /∂/ is missing in this language, and conversely, in some OE words where we find /d) in CA we find (∂) in OE.

Ex : CA (∂acæra) L dicere (to say, mention, recall)
CA [sudæ:] OE su∂ (south in OE, deserted, below in CA)

Similarly (r z) are put together as a pair. Where we find (z) in Proto-Ger. We find (r) in CA, and where we find (z) in CA we find (r) in OE.

Ex : Proto Ger hofoz* (hoof) CA [hæ:fer]
CA (zæa°ra) OE rarian (to roar).

(s š) are put together as a pair. Although normally we find (s) in OE where it is found in CA, we sometimes come across (š) in OE replacing (s) in CA. and also the opposite tendency.

Ex : [safina] OE (ship) CA (šams) OE sunne [sun].
In L where (š) does not exist there is the opposite tendency

Ex : CA (šaq'qa) L secö (to cut, chop).

The positions of sounds in this old alphabet then are not arbitrary nor accidental. It is possible that they denote the variations that could occur in the pronounciation of different tribes. One must not exclude the possibility that some of these sounds were in olden times even nearer to each other than they are today.

4.4 Sounds not found in L and OE :

The table opposite shows that the following sounds are missing in both L and OE /x z S D T ∋ R ∂h q/. In addition to the above the following are found in OE but not in L /š θ H ∂/. In other words there are nine sounds missing in OE and thirteen sounds missing in L. If we consider that the CA alphabet has twenty seven consonants in all, then about 46% of it is missing in L and 33% in OE. The loss in OE is a little less grave than that of L partly because the sounds missing in OE were compensated

for by a compromise in the form of mergers. In CA /t d ∂ c / have a relatively front point of articulation in comparison with /T D ∂h q S/ and this was designed in the SS of the language to express contrasts and antithesis. OE has taken dental /t/ and palatalized, alveolar /T/ and merged them producing an alveolar /t/, and again dental and palatalized alveolar /D/ producing an alveolar /d/. The same thing was done with the other pairs. While /H/ remained until a fairly late period (see Boswroth 1983, p.496).

The result of these mergers were new phonemes that could do double duty, since they were not very much to the front nor very far back. The solution was an ingenius one, phonetically, but where the SS of the language is concerned the loss was irreparable. Some of the phonemes have acquired new correspondences in the process. These will be discussed in due course.

In L only the front six have remained, thus moving the whole articulation of the language to a more front position. This is one of the main differences in the tones and sounds of L and Germaic languages. We shall see in succeding chapters how L made up for some of this loss.

Since so many consonants have been lost, and the loss of a single phoneme causes a gap in the language, we may well ask what was the effect of this heavy loss on L and OE ?

4.5 Three possibilities due to phonemic loss :

Examination of thousands of forms shows that three things may take place when a RV or a word derived from it has a phoneme that no longer exists in the language.

1. The word is lost as a whole and replaced by another that has similar semantic content.
2. The missing sound is replaced by another, very often its correspondent, or a sound whose presence is dictated by the new rules of the language.
3. The sound, or the syl containing this sound is deleted.

For the first phenomenon one has to consult a CA dictionary to see how whole paradigms have disappeared, leaving only a word here and there, revealing that they once existed.

The second phenomenon, the replacement of one sound by another, is the subject of chapters VIII and IX.

Deletion, the third change that can take place has become very common in both L and OE. In fact it may be considered a substantial rule in OE and is very frequent is L also. It is not due only to loss of sounds but has mophological and syntactic causes, to be discussed in due course.

We give below a few examples of deletion due to the loss of a phoneme, and as we proceed we shall find a great many more.

Mod Eng	OE or L	CA	Sound Missing
little	lytle	[qalyl]	q
open place	fen	[finæ:e°]	Vl stop
clay	humus	[Hæmæe°]	Vl stop
obsucure	dim	[Ɛatæm]	Ɛ
fin	fin	[zuƐnuf]	z - Ɛ
light	leoma	[lamaƐ]	Ɛ
take by force	rapio	[Rasabæ]	R - S
loaf	hlaf	[raRiyf]	R
cow	cue	[bæqarah]	q
mud dirt	waze	[wasax]	x

(VI stops are discussed in the next chapter)

4.6 An example of phonetic loss :

Whenever a sound is dropped in L or OE, it leaves a gap in the language that has to be closed. This gap causes one of the conditions given above. If a word survives after such loss, sometimes it has to go through more changes to conform to the general tendencies of the language it belongs to such changes may involve metathesis, assimilation, dissimilation as well as the main tendencies already given above. The point to remember is that once a word gets detached from its RV or this RV gets detached from its paradigm and the system of SS is no longer operative, there is no reason why a word should not change whenever the rules of the language it belongs to dictate it. Let us take words from the same RV in CA and see how they look in L and OE (for change of pat in the OE word see 12.2).

OE droppa (drop) CA [qaTrah], L nectar (nectar) CA [muqaTar]. Both the OE and L word come from the V [qaTara] in CA which means to fall or descend in drops or tiny pieces. Its TV [qaT'Tara] means to distil, to purity, to collect in tiny bits, to vaporize, then have descend in drops.

The cors of the L word is /m/: /n/. /q/:/c/. /T/:/t/

The cors of the OE word is /q/ : /d/, /T/ : /p/

The strong aspirated /T/ is sometimes interpreted as /p/, when in final-position in OE and in Germanic languages generally.

While in a certain group of words CA /q/ is interpreted as /d/ in OE. The L word has taken the nearest cors of the sounds of the CA word, but it begins with the pref /mæ/ in CA (4.23) which has merged with the root of the word in L.

The result is that the two words do not appear to be connected at all inspite of their being of the same root in CA.

In this study we shall come across a great many such cases, that is words which have one correspondence in L and another in OE. Such cors we call triangular correspondence or tri-cors.

From the same RV comes L **cuprum** whose CA cog is [qiTrun]. The L word has interpreted /T/ as /p/ as the OE word above and not as /t/ as it is in **nectar**. The reason is that **nectar** was taken from Gr, (it is the drink of the gods) and therefore has a different cors from that which originally came from L.

This is apparent also in the cors of /m/ : /n/ because most words in L retain /m/ if it is found in the CA form. (4.23).

4.7 The six contrastive pairs of phonemes :

We would like to draw attention here to an interesting phenomenon concerning the six contrastive pairs of phonemes, which have become single in L and OE. Any two verbs which rely on the contrast between one of those pairs for semantic content, and there are thousands of these in the language, become homophones. If /q/ and /c/ have become one then the verbs [qalabæ] (to turn over) an [cælæbæ] (to bind, fetter) have become phonetically the same, again if [Ta:ra] (to fly) and [tæræ] (to be lost) have the same sound /t/ in initial position, they also have become homophones in L and OE. What was the fate of these verbs? How have they fared after the merger of the phonemes that distinguished them from each others?

Examination of these forms that play the role of anithesis versus affinity in CA has revealed the following four possibilities :

1. One of the two homophones is dropped from the language, usually the less important one.
2. One of the two V changes its shape, either by change of consonants or pattern or both.
3. A few remain as homophones. This is found more often in OE than in L
4. A merger takes place, where they become one V that carries the semantic content of the two. This happens more often when the two V had originally similar semantic features and such a phenemenon is found more often in L.

Ex: CA [qaraba] to come near, to approach L creber
CA [cæraba] to grieve, inflict with disaster, worry OE caru (care)
CA [dæ:mæ] to last, to be durable L durere
CA [Da:mæ] to wrong , to judge wrongly, to doom.
N [Daym], pl, [doyum], OE cog dóm L cog damnō.
CA[qa:læ] (to say, call) Proto Ger collajan* CA sup [qawlæn]
CA [cæ:læ] to weight L kilo CA cog [cayl] (weight)
CA [Talæ:] to sweep over, hence to polish
CA [tælæ:] (to tell, relate) OE tellan and talu (tale)

Of each of the pairs above one V is found in L and one in and OE. This is not a rule but a general tendency, possibly so that there would be no ambiguity in the language. Words from the first V appear in OE with completely altered shape(12.5) partly to be differentiated from their homophones, but mainly because of the presence of /q/ which has triggered the formation of new patterns in OE to be discussed in due course. We continue in the succeding examples to examine contrastive verbs.

[hæwaæ:] to fall down, to fall from great height, [a+hwa] V+pref to make fall, to fell, push or break down. The sup. is [hawyan] OE heawan. We notice that the OE V has the syntatic feature of the V+pref not the RV. Which is intransitive.

[Hawa:] to contain, to hold, to incompass, is not found in L or OE
[hæ:ta] to hunt, to hover around quarry
[Ha:Ta] to build a wall around, to surround, to protect, to be in control of.

The first V is that from which OE hunta (hunter) comes the second V is not found in OE nor in L but its derivative V [hawaTa] to be cautions, to protect, to surroud in protection is.

In OE it is concerned with divination hwata (an augur) and hwatung (divination). In L where CA (H) and (h) often appear as (c) it is cautiō (wariness) and cautus adj; (careful, wary, cautous).

The CA cog adj is [Hawiyt] the difference is of pat, to be discussed in the chapter concerned.

4.8 Tracing a CA V in IE languages :

Supposing OE picks out one V and L another, as we have seen above, and a third language a third V. Let us assume it is the TV of one of them. What would be the result? The result would be that we would have, or appear to have three different languages, although basically they were one language. In actual fact this is what has happened in IE languages. Most of the differences, which are sometimes attributed to the influence of foreign languages are, when traced to their origins, the result of the different choice of verb or TV.

Let us take two CA V and trace their cognates in L and OE. If we take the contrastive V [calæmæ] and [qalæma] (to speak, say, tel vs to prune) [cælæ:m] the N derived from [cælæma] means in CA significant sounds. Therefore it can be a word, a sentence or a statement. Its TV [cæl'læma] means to speak up, to proclaim, confer, converse. In L we find both **clamō** (to declare, shout, proclain) and **calumnia** (to charge falsely, slander, gossip) of this root. The word [cælam] in CA is sometimes used in the sense of false speech or what cannot be verified as the L one. The difference between the two is that L uses a fem. pat, while CA uses a neuter one. We notice that the V **clamō** does not have the semantic content of the RV only but of the V+pref in CA. In OE what we find is **talcian** (to talk) whose CA cog is [tacæluman]. It has the semantic content of both the RV and the V+pref, the pref is no longer recognized as such but has become part of the V. That is the reason it is sometimes mistakenly assumed to be the RV from which tale and tell were derived when their RV is [tælæ:] to tell, to relate a story, to recite.

The constrastive V of [cæl'læma] is [qal'læma] to prune. This V is missing in both L and OE, but we find a word dervied from it that has entered L through Gr. It is **calamus**, a cane or reed. The CA cog means anything that has been pruned, hence a stick or pen. It is something (a branch) shaped to be long and straight. The V+pref derived from this V is [a+qlæmæ] to shape or prune to fit environment. It is not in L or OE but in OF Fr it is acclimater, (to acclimatize)

The cases where such instances occur are very numerous and account for much of the differences between one IE language and another (for more such cases see the chapter on Verb and derivation).

.9 Tracing an OE word in A CA dictonary :

Now that we have an idea about the nature of contrastive V in CA, we are in a position to look up an OE word or L word in a CA dictionary, under one condition, that the consonants of the RV have not changed in L or OE. Let us take the OE adj, dōl (dull) it means in OE bewildered, astray, heretical. The cons. of the RV should be /d-1/. We know that in CA we have two consonants [d] and [D]. Therefore we have to look under [d-l] and also under [D-l]. Under [d-l] we find the word [dæl] which means a triangular piece of land near the mouth of a river. Semantically it is very far from the OE, one we had better look under (D-l) then. Under (D-l) we find the V [Dal'læ] to go astray, to loose the way, to be heretical, confused. From this V comes the adj [Da:l] which has the same semantic content as the V and which is the cog of the OE adj dōl .

What about the other form we have found under [d-l]? Has it no IE cognate? We find in Gr. the word delta of the same semantic content, that is a triangular shaped piece of alluvial land enclosed by two branches at the mouth of a river. This word is one of the oldest ever written. It is found in the Sinaitic alphabet which was found to be the link betwen the hieroglyphics of the Ancient Egyptains and the writing of the Phoenicians. It is found in it as a two sided triangle with a dash, probably the sea, beneath it. In CA it is a two sided triangle, or angle, and in Phoenician and Gr it is a triangle as the drawing below shows.

Sinaitic	**Phoenician**	**Later Gr**	**CA**
v̲)|	Δ Δ	Δ	>

We notice that Gr delta has an extra consonant. This is not a difference of RV but of pattern. A final /t/ is the mark of the feminine in CA (as well as other Semitic tongues) so that the fem of /dæl/ in CA is the /dalætu/ and in some instances it is [dælæh] (cf with Phoenician and Hebrew daleth).

Is this word found in OE ? In OE ths word dæl (dale) exits as it does in CA. The pat. is the same, the word is a neuter as it is in CA, but the semantic content has changed. It does not mean a delta but lowland or

valley, lower part. How has this change come about? Is it a change in semantic content or only a change of referent? One must bear in mind that the relationship of CA to OE is a much earlier one than that of CA and other Semitic tongues. In other words the ancestor of OE has been separated from CA a long time before Semitic tongues have. What then was the earliest use of the word ?

There is no reason why OE or any other IE tongue should not derive meanings from the RV according to its needs, which may not be identical with those of CA. One has to keep in mind that the language is based on SS, so that whenever two forms having the same root differ, one should go back to the RV. The RV found in CA is the V /dæ:læ/. It is a typical 2 syl V and it means to stretch below, to fall forwards, to be down below, OE has used the neuter pat to designate lowland, while the Semitic tongues have used the Fem pat, which always denotes a special instance or case, that is not any low land, but lowland at the mouth of the river. Both uses are correct, and both patterns are in accord with the morphological rules of CA, as we shall perceive, when discussing patterns in CA. Whenever one comes across a difference of semantic content it i always advisable to turn to the RV for reference.

We know that the connection of L with CA is through the IE language or mother tongue of both L and OE, so that if we can produce an OE word, there is no reason why we should not be able to produce a Latin one, provided that we observe the rule given above. Let us take a word having three consonants in L. It should have the same three consonants in CA. If we take the L adj gelid-us (icy frozen, hard) can we find a cognate for it in CA? If we look in a CA dictinary under g + l + d we should find the V [gælidæ] to become frozen, hard, very cold or icy. From this RV we get the word [gæliyd] it means ice. If it is used as an adj to describe a human being, it does not mean icy but hard, hence strong, firm in battle, valiant, having prowess and solidity. Another N derived from this V is [gælæ:d]. It means a man or soldier who beats up prisoners or kills them. In L the word appears as gladiator. It has undergone some changes in pat to be discussed in due course. In L there is the RV together with the whole family of which we could find more cognates in L, should we desire, since the V as gelo is also found in L, together with the N and adj which we have found to be cognates.


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Chapter V

The Vowels of CA

5.1 The Vl of CA :

A discussion of the phonetic qualities of the vowels of CA is outside the scope of this comparative study, since the exact quality of the vowels of L and OE is unknown.

We have only the written form which is a casual and inconsistent representation. We do have the phonetic quality of the vowels of CA since as far back as 600 A.D. (before that we have only the written form), but considering the very great age of the language that is not nearly far enough. On the bright side we know that CA Vl are governed by certain morphological and syntactic rules. We shall see in due course how many remnants of these rules remain in L and OE.

Perhaps if we examine the written language we could judge how far the Vl of CA are rule regulated.

5.2 The written form :

When writing an Arabic text one uses no Vl or graphemes but dashes (something like Fr. accents). A dash above the word is /a/ a dash below it is /i/ and a dash with a curved head above it is /o/. That gives us three Vl. The system is highly economical and space saving but phonetically it gives us three Vl only, moreover and most of the time, in texts for grown ups, these dashes are not used at all. A native speaker of the language ought to be able to read a CA text without the aid of dashes. In fact all do without any difficulty, except in the case of foreign words or very rare patterns. How does the Vl system of CA work?

5.3 The Vl system of CA :

In order to understand the Vl system of CA one must look upon Vl as highly flexible and mobile entities whose job it is to link consonants and to denote category, case and tense. This system makes the Vl the mobile part of any word and the consonant the unchangeable root.

A CA Vl is governed by three factors :

1. The consonant it follows.
2. The consonant it precedes, if the two belong to the same syllable.
3. By the pattern it belongs to.

CA consonants may be roughly divided into front, medial and back consonants. A CA Vl always follows the consonant that precedes it and is influenced by that which follows it, if in the same syl, so that a back consonant takes a back Vl, a front consonant a front Vl. If a Vl is found between a back and a front consonant a merger takes place depending on how far back is the back consonant and which one precedes it for priority is always given to that which precedes.

While the consonants decide the quality of Vl in the contrast of front-back, it is the pattern of the word to which the Vl belongs that decides its quality in the contrast of open and rounded so that a Vl is governed in the contrast front back by the consonants in whose immediate environment it exists, while in the contrast of open rouded it is governed by the pattern of the word it is found in. A CA Vl is therefore an amorphous, mobile, flexible thing that adapts itself according to its environment. That is the reason the reader of a CA text can read withou the aid of markers. The consonants and pattern decide before hand how he is to pronounce the Vl. While there are only three markers, the trained ear can distinguish at least twelve Vl, for there is a gradation of positions for /a/ from front to back and the same may be said of / o e i /. The Vl of CA never begin very much to the front nor very high up (like Fr. /u/ for example). They are not fixed entities but fluctuating and flexible. It is a matter of gradations rather than sharp contrasts. This statement is true of the whole language. When discussing the stress pattern of the RV and when discussing the different nominal patters we shall observe this same orderly gradation.

5.4 Vl quality :

Ex : [qa:la] and [cæ:læ]

The difference in the Vl quality of the above verbs (the first is the root of proto Ger collajan*, CA sup /cawlæn/, the seocnd is the RV of L kilo) is due to the difference in consonants. We notice that the Vl that comes after uvular /q/ is prounounced more to the back than that which comes after velar /c/. The final Vl, although theoretically an /æ/ after /l/, is usually heard as a shwa or indistinct Vl.

When examining the patterns of CA we shall perceive that they are not arbitrary but decided by the morphological rules of the language and according to the RV from which they have emanated and the category to which they belong, while the morphological rules are contigent on the SS of CA.

5.5 Example of VI quality in patterns :

Ex : [garf] [gurf]

The two nouns above come from the RV [garafa]. Its sup appears in OE. as grafan, CA sup [garfan]. It means to take away earth, to dig out to erode. The first N has as features + abstract, the second has the features + concrete + neuter. This shade of difference in the semantic content is decided by the VI quality. The first means the process of digging or erosion, the second means a rock or crag that has been eroded by the sea.

5.6 VI on the level of SS :

In order to understand the role of VI on the morphological and on the syntactic level one has to begin by examining their role on the level of SS, the basis of the language. On the level of SS there are only three VI : a i u.

That is the reason there are only three markers. The gradations of /a/ and the gradations of /u/ to back /o/, the gradations of /i/ to /e/, are only phonetic not phonemic. In other words all the /a/ sounds from /æ/ to back /a/ are allophones, and the same be said of the other two.

On the level of SS /a/ stands for the static, the passive, the inactive, the ponderus.

/i/ symbolizes movement or extention or going from one point to another. It is an opening or widening of the lips.

/u/ symbolizes pulling together, hence gathering one's strength, action, movement or accumulation, convergence. It is a pursing of the lips.

If we now look at their corresponding functions on the syntactic level which is more clear and unvariable than the very subtle shades of meaning which are found on the morpholgical level and of which we shall give a few examples of in due course.

On the syntactic level, when the inflectional ending for a N or adj is desired the following endings are the usual ones :

1. /a/ is the ending of the N or adj in the accusative case. The undergoer of the action. Something or someone is not doing the action, but has action done to it. Hence the static ponderous /a/.
2. If the word is the subject of the sentence or the doer of the action then the ending is /u/ which symbolizes a gathering of strength in this case.

3. If the word is in the dative, locative or genetive case, then the ending is /i/ which symbolizes going from one point to another, or connection, one thing (possession) with another (owner).

Where verbs are concerned , the past tense which denotes past action and which is the unmarked form of the verb has always an /a/ in the first syl to symbolize the static or what is over and past. The present tense has this initial Vl deleted. This is the mark that denotes that action has began. We have mentioned earlier that CA makes use of this negative aspect of the language. It is a feature of its economy. Removal of static /a/ means action has began. The passive tense (there is a special tense for the passive in CA as in L) has an /u/ as its mark. It symbolizes action being done to or executed upon another entity by an agent. /u/ is a symbol of accumulation or concentration, whether of strength or weakness.

Ex : [wazana] (to weigh) sup [waznan] is the cog of OE wegan. [wazana] is the past tense of the third pers sing. It is also the unmarked form of the V. It means he weighed or he has weighed. [ya-wzin] (he is weighing, he weighs every day).

Once the verb is an action, the ponderous Vl of the unmarked form are no longer in use. The first is deleted to mark that this is the pres tense and the second is quickened into /i/ while the third is also deleted. The initial /ya/ is the pro for third pers sing. [wuzina] past T passive voice. (it was weighed) here the initial Vl has become /u/ to mark that this is the passive where action falls upon another, while the final Vl, remain open /a/ to denote that this is past action. [yu-zan] (it is weighed or being weighed now, or it is weighed in such a manner). This tense is often used to show how an action is done, the method of doing things. The initial /y/ of the passive may be observed in OE until the time of chaucer in V like ye-clept (he is called) CA cog [yu-calu lahu].

We have given a brief idea, but as we proceed the reader will gradually perceive how this ancient system functions.

5.7 Vl in L and OE :

In L and OE the level of SS has become obsolete in other words reduction, elongation or deletion of Vl is no longer significant on the morphological or semantic level except in a few cases. Vl are no longer governed by SS but by phonetic rules. These rules are themselves subject to change, moreover the exact quality of L and OE Vl is unknown. How many changes they have submitted to during the thousands of years of separation from CA until the moment of comparison is also not known. In fact we hesitate

to compare entities which are so very different. L and OE VI are of phonetic status, while CA VI are considered morphs (like a in sang which may be considered a morph equivalent to -ed or an allomorph of the latter).

All we can do in this chapter is to examine some of these differences before we turn our attention to other aspects of language.

5.8 The differnences between CA, L and OE VI :

The first difference one encounters is a general tendency towards the reduction of VI. This tendency is part of a wider tendency, the movement towards more compact form. CA VI in the unmarked form of most verbs are /a/. This is due to the SS of the language. Every change after that in any pattern is significant. OE does not use the unmarked form as its basis but the supine which already has one VI less (6.6) while L uses that pat of the unmarked form but gives it new and reduced VI.

Ex :	CA [bænæ:]	L ponere	unmarked form for 2 syl V
	CA (abni:)	L ponō	Irst pers sing pres tense.
	CA (qadima)	sup (quoduman)	OE cumman P.cumende

In the above forms (we shall put aside other changes for the moment) we find that the infinitive in both L and OE has different and more reduced VI than the CA one. Consequently any form derived from it would have VI different from the VI of those derived from the CA unmarked form, which is the basis for all forms in CA.

Supposing we do come across forms which have, or appear to have the same VI in CA and L, or CA and OE, can we accept them as identical? If we compare L hasta CA [HaSa:Dah] (weapon, scythe).

The VI are written /a/ in both L and CA. But CA VI are governed by the consonants that precede and follow them. The /a/ above are pronounced far back because of the glottal cons /H/ that precedes the first VI, the palatalized /S/ that precedes the second and the palatalized alveolar /D/ that precedes the third. L a is pronounced very much to the front in comparison. The medial VI has been deleted to acquire more compact form. This is a significant change of pat in CA. It no longer means what has been reaped or cut by a weopon or blade. In other words it changes the pattern from that of doer of action to undergoer of action. In L such deletion is not significant.

Final /a/ as the mark of the fem remains significant in L. It is dictated by the morphological rules of the language as it is in CA.

If we comapere OE [hæmela] and CA (Hæm'malah) also [Hæ:melah]. The word in OE means oarloop, what carries or what the oar is put in. In CA it should have the pat having the GS, but in OE it has the pat which denotes what carries. The difference is slight but this pat is used in CA for the doer of action (in modern times for an aircraft carrier). There is also reduction of Vl. Then we cannot be certain that the initial Vl is a front or back /a/ since both /h/ and /H/ were written alike in olden times in OE .

5.9 Cyclic movement of Vl :

Supposing we get forms what look identical like. OE burg CA [burg] (tower).

The above forms have consonants that may be accepted as the same approximately, and it is quiet probable that the Vl are also the same, but one must bear in mind the immense period of time that separates OE and CA, and the numerous contacts that OE has had with other languages and dialects. In fact we have found that some consonants go through a cycle of change, returning to their original CA shape after immense periods of time, such as the change of /y/ to /g/, then its reinstatement as /y/ in Mod Eng again, (see below) or the change of CA /f/ to /p/ then its reinstatement as /f/ again in German (cf CA [sæfina], OE ship, Mod Ger schiff) for German sound shift see B. Lockwood. 1965 P. 51.

Vl are far more mobile, inchoate and fragile than consonants. It is possible, but improbable, that the Vl above have turned full cycle and returened to their original CA shape. Much research needs to be done on the subject, to enable us to peer back upon a period of thousands of years and decide whether the changes that have taken place were the first, or only one link in a long chain.

5.10 Vl of CVCC pat :

If we take a pattern very common in CA, L and OE the CVCC pat, and compare between the CA Vl and its cognate in L and OE.

Ex : CA [fælq] OE felg (felly) , CA [Harb] OE hild (war) CA
CA [qarn] OE horn, CA [xalq] OE folc (people).

Although CA and OE have the same pat above the Vl has changed in OE. In CA the Vl is decided by the pat, in OE we find the same pat as CA but carrying different Vl.

If we look at some CA words and their L cogantes of this same pattern we find

CA [qarǹ] L corn-us, CA [qalb] L cors (heart)

CA [cæns] L cinis, CA [læRw] L logos (unrelaible talk) taken in L from Gr.

Again the Vl are different and in some words the whole pattern has changed.

5.11 Foreign influence on L and OE :

Examination of thousands of forms has shown that there is no systemic correspondence between CA Vl and L and OE ones. There are small groups of words which have the same correspondence but no overall rules. One must recall that both L and OE have been influenced by other languages, so that examination shows the patterns and rules of more than one language. In fact OE may be considered the language of more than one tribe while L has been influenced by Umbrian, and is heavily indebted to Greek. Study of these minor groups could be very helpful in understanding the early influences on L and the early and later influences on OE. We shall refer to such influences briefly whenever necessay.

5.12 Two morphological rules :

There are two correspondences which are fairly consistent however. They are not due to the phonetic rules of L and OE but to morphological and syntactic ones. The first pers sing pres takes /u/ in CA in three syl V and most 2 syl V. A small group ending in a long Vl takes /i/. This rule has been passed on to L where all V in the first pers sing take o. Even this small group that takes /i/ in CA takes o by analogy in L.

The second rule concerns the fem pat of CA. Fem nouns in CA take /ah/ as ending (the /h/ is often unheard) This /ah/ correponds with a in L, where it is the mark of the fem also) (12.1).

In OE there are some words which retain (a) as the mark of the fem but in the majority of N it has been reduced to e.

Fortunately these radical changes in Vl have no bearing on our search for cognate forms, since Vl are no part of the root in CA.

They change frequently in CA through the morphological and syntactic rules of the language, and we expect them to, while the root remains

intact. Change of Vl cannot mask differences or create resemblance, if the consonants of the root have not changed. Once we know the RV, we can easily reproduce any category desired for all categories are derived by the application of the morphological rules of the language to the RV.

5.13 The Vl stop :

There is a kind of Vl in CA that is different from other Vl. It has the features of glottal, voiceless, stop. While all the other vowels are voiced resonants. This Vl does not occupy on the morphological level the position of a Vl, and it does not occur as a link betwen consonants on the phonological level, but it occupies the position of a syl, that is in CA CV. It can occur as a syl in initial, medial or final position. In CA it is differentiated from other Vl by a mark above it. We shall do the same using the symbol (°) above it for convenience.

Ex : [æ°cala], [to eat], [θ aæ°ra], (to seek vengeance), [badææ°] (to begin).

5.14 Deletion of Vl stop :

When this stop occurs in a CA word, what do we have in its place in L and OE ? In other words how is the gap that its absence creates closed ? Examination of such forms shows that it can be filled in three ways :

1. Deletion is the most common, when this stop occurs in final or initial position.
2. It is sometimes replaced by a C stop
3. It is replaced by a simple Vl.

1. Ex : CA [aHad] OE had (person), CA [balaææ°] OE balu,
CA [læbua°] L lupa (she-wolf, she-lion) CA [Hæmæ°] L hum-us (clay)
CA [finæ:°] OE fen (fen)

In the above forms the Vl stop has been deleted in the L and OE cognates.

5.15 Cors of Vl stop with consonant :

2. Ex : CA [æ°∂a] OE co∂u (harm),
CA [maræ°tu] OE magden (woman)
CA [æ°sas] L basis (basis)
CA [æc°am] L cæcus (blind)

In the above forms it is replaced by a C stop. If the word containing a VI stop has also an /s/ or an aspirated sound the two together are replaced by x.

Ex : CA [ræ°s] L rex (head, leader) CA [cæ°s] L calix (chalice)

5.16 Cors of VI stop with a simple VI :

In the examples below the VI stop has become a resonant in L and OE. as well as in some old Arabic dialects (1.8).

Ex : 3 CA [a°qala] L cælo (to raise above, in relief)

In the V above VI stop has been removed to medial position in L after being changed to a resonant.

CA [šanaæ°n] OE scunian. (to loath, hate). This V, found in CA and OE, is not found in other Germanic tongues. We do come across such instances in OE. Does that imply that OE was closer to CA than other Germanic tongues? No, because the same thing can be said of OHG, OF or Greek. CA is a language of vast lexicon, so it is not surprising to find that each language has taken from it according to its circumstances.

5.17 The sound X in L :

The sound x found in L above is not found in CA, because in CA /s/ alone has symbolic value, and /c/ alone has symbolic value. Such a sound must have started after the SS of the language was no longer significant. It must have started quiet early however. In the Sinaitic alphabet it is represented by a fish. The word in Arabic is [samak] Pl. [sæmæK] OF somoun (salmon) . It was chosen as symbol because it has both (s+c). In the Chalcidian alphabet it appears as ks, and in Greek as (x). L has taken it from Gr. in all probability as it has taken much else (see 9.9).

5.18 Homophones due to VI stop :

If a VI stop can be interpreted as more than one phoneme, and if in CA each phoneme has significance alone, so that change of the slightest sound causes change of semantic content, what can happen in L or OE through the changes we have given above? Let us look at the forms below :

Mod Eng	OE	CA	Semantic content
-	feoh	[foyuh] Pl	wealth, cattle, booty
fee	feá	[fiye°]	gift, extra, recopense
-	feá	[fæyæ°h]	relief, recovery, joy
few	feá	[feæ°h]	small group

The cause of the homophones in OE is that the cognate V in CA are phonetically close, they are the V [fæ:æ°] to give, yield extra and [fææ°ya] to cleave, break, bring out from, hence relieve. It is possible that the words were pronounced differently in OE since, as we shall see in the next part of this chapter, semi-Vl are often written as Vl in both and L.

5.19 Long Vl and Diphthongs in CA :

The RV is the category from which all other categories are derived. Most 2 syl. V in CA have a long Vl in the RV. This Vl appears as a diphthong in the derived forms. This diphthong may be made of anyone of the CA Vl together with /y/ or /w/. Some derived forms are made by the help of a long Vl together with a Vl stop which has in CA the status of a CV. Other diphthongs have the function of being markers of category or case and number. They are dictated by the morphological rules of the language or the syntactic ones. We shall have more to say about them when dealing with verbs. At the moment we are only to observe how these markers of category and case appear in L and OE, for in many of them they have become, like Vl an integral part of the root or part of the stem.

5.20 Semi-Vl in L and OE :

The first difficulty we encounter is that semi-Vl and Vl were often not clearly distinguished in writing in both L and OE, moreover in OE one can encouter the same word written in more ways than one.

Ex : nealles, nales, nalas, nalles, nalæs, nalla, adv. (not, not at all). Concerning L J.F. Mountfor says : (p. 3, 1946).

The letter i and u were used also to represent consonant sounds. The Romans themselves made no distinction in writing between ii (pronounced like y in yet) and vowel i, or between consonant u (pronounced like English w) and vowel u, but in some Latin books consonantal i is represented by j, and consonant u is still generally represented by v.

The problem in OE is similar to that of L where semi-Vl are concerned. One may find bryme or breme (great strong, well hence well known). CA [ɜæ:rem]. The old scribes wrote subjectively. One replaces the long Vl in the CA adj by (y) and another (possibly at a slighly later period?) by e. We find both Y and W written sometimes as o. In L W is often written as o as comparison of the forms below reveal.

Ex :

L	GR.	CA	Mod Eng
diota cannon balua	∂iwta Kanuwn OE balewa	[RawTah) [qanuwn] [bælwah]	bag, basket law wild beast in L catastrophy trial in CA, the devil in OE

5.21 CA plural in L and OE :

Some CA N form their plural by a diphthong in the second syl of the word. How do these plurals appear in L and OE, are they still considered plurals, that is, is the diphthong still significant in theses languages? Let us compare the forms below.

Mod Eng	CA sing	CA pl	Sing	Sing
dawn	[dagan]	[dogoun]	ON dagan	OE dogon
darkness	[dægeyah]	[dawa:g]		OE deorc
to wrong	[Daym]	[Doyoun		OE dóm
soul	[sawala]	[sawo:l]	Goth:saiwala	OE sáwol
kind, species	[gens]	[gonous]	Lgens	genus

In the above forms we notice that there is a tendency in OE to use the Pl, instead of the sing and to use it as a sing. N. The sing is no longer found in OE but may be traced in other Germanic tongues. In L we have the sing and the Pl of the same word as two separate lexical items. The relationship between them as sing and Pl no longer exists.

What does the phenomenon above signify? It signifies that the markers of number of CA are no longer significant in L and OE. But these markers of number involve the Vl of the whole pattern. Are patterns no longer significant in L and OE also? When dealing with CA patterns we shall go into greater detail. What we shall do here is to give one or two examples that would enable us to examine the Vl.

5.22 The Vl of the CA : CEC pat in L and OE :

Since earliest times CA grammarians have given each pattern a name that is typical of it and is the model or standard for all pats of the kind. Let us take the pat [fæ:ɜel]. This pat denotes the doer of the action. It is the ancestor of Mod Eng words like driver, baker etc. The pat is CA : CEC. Let us compare CA words of this pat with their L and OE cognates.

Mod Eng	CA	OE or L
wicked	[Ha:qed)	OE wicca, ME wikked
clear	[Ha:der)	OE hádor
wicked, grudging	[næ:qem)	L nequam
just, noble	[ɜæ:del)	L Aedil-is, OE edel

We notice that the long Vl which marks the first syl of this pat in CA has disappeard except in No 2, and that the /e/ of the second syl has disappeared also in some of the words above. In other words that pat can no longer be recognised by its Vl, as it is in CA.

Concerning the semantic content we would like to draw attention to the word soul. In CA the V [sawala] does not mean soul, but what the soul prompts, urges, facilates, and concerning the adj [ɜæ:del] while it means just, noble in CA and OE, in L it is used in a special sense. It was used for certain judges or magistrates who ruled in old Rome. The RV [ɜædælæ] means to execute justice, to be fair.

5.23 Vl of the CACIYC pat in L and OE :

The CA pat CACIYC denotes the undergower of the action. Let us see if this pat fares any better than the previous one, where Vl are concerned.

CA [nagiyl] L mugil (grass). CA [Hæqiyr] OE hócor (despicable) CA [ɜætiyq] L antiqus. CA [sæqiym] OE seóc (sick).

Again this pat is no longer significant and the Vl have undergone change. The diphthong in the second syl has become a short Vl, as well as other changes which will be discussed more fully in due course. The point to bear in mind is that Vl have become no longer significant inside a pat as they are in CA, that is they no longer belong to the morphological level but have been degraded to the phonological level. Once a Vl is no longer significant as marker, what is there to prevent it from becoming shorter or more rounded or to change from a diphthong to a simple Vl to facilate pronunciation? One must bear in mind that there is an overall movement for the reduction of Vl that has started very early indeed as we shall see below. This movement is itself part of the movement of deletion for the sake of simplification, a process Arab grammarians call "facilation". when a Vl is no longer significnat as marker it is affected by this movement and gradually alters to more easily pronounced form.

5.24 Cors of /y/ : /g/ :

The next chapter we shall examine corespondences between consonants, but we would like to draw attention here to the cors, that may occur between a consonant and a Vl. We shall not comment on such cors, here, since it is discussed in some detail in the next chapter, suffice it in this part concerned with Vl, to know that such cors exists.

As we have seen above diphthongs in CA are derived by the morphological rules of the language from 2 syl Vl or they belong to the syntactic rules denoting case and number. A diphthong is made of a Vl + a semi Vl, we find that this semi Vl is often replaced by consonants in L and OE.

Ex : CA [ә ayl] OE tagl (tail), CA [sæyl], OE sagl (sail) CA [hæyl] OE hagl, (hail) CA [musaytcr] L magister (teacher, in control of) CA [rayæn] L irrigare (to water earth).

In the above examples CA /y/ is replaced by /g/ in OE. This cors is found also in L as well as some old Arab tribes. While sometimes there is the opposite tendency, that is /g/ is replaced by /y/. This is found in other tribes (see 5.26 below). After a fantastic period of time Mod Eng has replaced /g/ by the origninal /y/ as in the examples above. How was that possible and why? This question is discussed in chapter VIII.

5.25 The cors of /y/ : /l/ :

If we compare the forms below :

CA [gareyah] OE girl, CA [fayD] OE flood (flood)

OE digol (dark) CA [dugæ:]
CA [fatæ:], [fata:tu] L filus, filia (girl, boy, in CA, son daughter in L)
CA [saniyn] L senilus (senile) very old in CA.

In the above examples CA /y/ has been replaced by both /g/ and /l/. The question that such cors brings up is that if a consonant is introduced in the root, as the examples above denote, then the root is completely altered and can no longer serve as a means of tracing cognate forms. This is a point that one has to bear in mind, when comparing forms which are candidates for being considered cognates. One has to be well aware of the rules the language in question has submitted to before trying to make such an attempt.

2.26 Some early changes :

In the succeeding chapters we shall examine many of the changes that have taken place in L and OE. Before embarking upon this comparative examination, we would like to draw attention to the fact that not all the changes have taken place after the Romance and Germanic tribes have left the peninusla, nor are all these changes due to the change of environment.

Some changes undoubtedly are due to the change of environment, some have been corroborated and extended by it, but examination of old Arabic dialects reveal that many of these changes had already started in the peninsula. The Arabs themselves call CA "Al FusHa" (the clear one). They would not have distinguished it by this epithet had their languages been as orderly and systematic. In fact some of these old Arabic dialects may be considered an intermediate stage between CA and OE, or CA and L.

CA	[gareyæh]	[šagarah]	[fæm]	[hæða]
old Arabic dialect	gæ:rah	šyrah	θæm	ðæ
OE	girle	treow	muθ	þe
Mod Eng	girl	tree	mouth	the

CA [qahwah], Arabic [æ°hwa] L aqwa (water, liquid)
CA [Hæða] Arabic Hæ L hic (this)

The reader will find more of these changes common to old Arabic dialects L and OE in the first chapter of this work. (for more detailed works, see Dayf or Shahiyn).

Chapter VI

The CA Verb

6.1 The CA Verb :

CA verbs are divided by grammarians into two great groups RV. (Root verbs) that are formed without the aid of an affix or change of pattern and a second group, the verbs derived from these by the help of a prefix, infix or change of stress pattern.

RV claim our attention first, and in this chapter we shall deal with the RV of the two main patterns in CA, then with verbs and prefixes, some of the prefixes shared by CA, L and OE.

6.2 The Root in CA :

RV are classified according to two things, the number of consonants and the kind of vowels. Since there are no clusters in the unmarked form of 2 con and 3 con RV the number of syl always corresponds with the number of consonants. That is a verb that has two consonants would have two syl, a verb that has three cons would have three syl. In CA there are 2 cons, 3 cons, 4 cons RV. There are many of the first group, but the largest group by far is the three cons group. 4 cons verbs are less frequent. They play an important role in the SS of the language, however (21.3).

Ex: **Unmarked form**	**Supine**	
2 cons [qa:la]	[qawlan]	(to say, call) Proto Ger collojan
3 cons [ðærara]	[ðicran]	(to say, mention) L cog dicere
4 cons [halwæsæ]	(halwæsah)	(to hallucinate) L cog hallucinare.

3 syl and 2 syl Verbs, are further subdivided into groups according to the kind of vowels. These sub-groups need not concern us here since such fine details no longer exist in L and OE and because this work is an outline, where we hope wo show the main lines only. Nevertheless we give an example of such gradation of VI below to show its significance inside the verbal frame work.

6.3 The stress pattern of two syl and three syl V :

The unmarked form of a 2 cons RV has two stresses, a main stress where the long Vl or GS occurs and secondary or tertiary stress. The unmarked form of a 3 cons RV has three stresses, main stress on the first syl, secondary stress on the second and no stress or weak stress on the third. Stress in CA differs from Mod in Eng stress in that the primary stess is softer, secondary stress and weak stress are therefore closer to it and to each other than they are in Mod Eng.

A verb like [∂ærafæ] OE cog drifan (to drive) would be divided into three distinct syl. [∂æ-ra-fa]. The three stresses are only one degree each lower than the one before it so that they form a gradation not a contrast.

In L and in Mod Fr one comes across this kind of syllable division. It is a renmant from the IE mother tongue (G.Price p. 26, 1971). We may ask why the unmarked form of the RV should have this clear-cut syllable division excluding other forms of the verb? The answer is that in CA each consonant has its significance in the SS of the language. Therefore it was right and necessary that the RV should have due attention in order to understand its semantic portent. Beneath this division of syllables is the same principle that makes us divide the words of a sentence today. To us it is the word that is the significant unit; to ancient people it was the consonant that was the significant unit.

6.4 Twin verbs :

Each 2 cons or 3 cons RV may have two twin verbs (TV). These TV carry the same consonants as the RV but differ from it in stress pattern or in the introduction of a medial GS. They give a nuance or shade of meaning derived from that of the RV. Since the stress paf of a verb in CA is dicided by the SS of the language, the stress pat of these verbs depends on their semantic content as we shall see below :

Ex :			
	[gæra:]	(2 1)	to run.
	[gæ:ra]	(1 2)	to go along with, hence to neighbour.
	[gar'ra]	(2+1)	to drag, to draw along.
	[qatæla]	(1 2 3)	to kill L cog cædō.
	[qa:tæla]	(1 2 3)	to fight each other, hence two agents.
	[qat'tala]	(2 +1 3)	to kill indiscriminately, great slaughter (in this V L has deleted the last syl while Mod Eng has deleted the medial syl).

In the verbs above, as in all CA verbs of such patterns a long initial VI denotes a mitigation of action, while a medial transition which introduces a second cons denotes an augmentain of action, hence repetition or exaggeration of action. Pat 1 may be trans or intras, 2 has two agents, and 3 is always trans.

6.5 Geminette stop :

The medial GS is formed by the repetition of the medial cons together with a stop or transition between the two consonants. The first consonant is pronounced, but it never attains its full range. It is stopped at the peak, then the second consonant begins. A remnant of this is found in words like "ecco" in L. It is found also in OHG (Lochwood p.14 1965). And there are numerous examples of it in OE. In CA it affords an important addition to the semanitc and syntactic powers of the RV and also the nouns derived from the new verb. In OE we believe that in olden times it was pronounced as in CA. It is found in such verbs as hreddan CA [Har'rada] (to rid or deliver from) and hremman CA [Har'rama] (to deprive, prevent). In the OE V the GS has been removed to the last cons after the clustering of the second cons with the first.

In L this GS is sometimes represented, like other stops and aspirations by an /sc/ that is aspiration then stop. (5.18).

Ex:			
Ex:	[fat'tana]	fascinare	to fascinate
	[tæb'bara]	tabescere	to strave, to waste away

6.6 The unmarked form and the supine :

In CA it is the unmarked form of the third person singular that is the basis of all other parts of the verb and from which all the other categories are derived. This unmarked form has the pattern CVCVCV in 3 syl V and the stress pattern (1 2 3) given above. There is no infinitive in CA, but a supine which is sometimes used as a noun but is most of the time used as an adverb of manner to corroborate the action of the verb and intensify it. This supine has the pattern CVCCAN.

While OE has taken the pat of the CA supine as its infinitive. L has taken the unmarked form of the CA RV as its infinitive. In other words- the L infinitive has the pat CVCVCV, while the OE one has that of CVCCAN, so that if one wishes to trace the resemblance between a CA verb and its OE counterpart one has to compare the OE infinitive with the CA supine but if one wishes to trace the resemblance between a CA verb

and a L one, one has to compare the unmarked form of the CA RV with the L infinitive because it is this unmarked form that L has taken as its infinitive and not the supine.

Let us take a 3 syl verb to see how this works out in practice. Let us take the verb "to have" common to the three languages. In L the infinitive is habere, in OE it is habben. The first has the pattern of the unmarked form and the second the pattern of the supine in CA. This verb has undergone phonological changes in both L and OE because in CA this verb has as unmarked form [Hafaðha] and as supine [Hifðhan]. The pattern is the same but the medial consonant and final consonant are different /f/: /b/ and /ðh/:/r/ by AC. Could it be the CA verb that as undergone change since both L and OE have a medial /b/? This is not possible since the verb belongs to a long paradign of verbs, and each verb differs from the one preceding it by one consonant only. Let us look at the unmarked form of the verb in CA. It is [Hafaðha]. In speech it is often pronounced [hæfað]. The OE verb in the third pers. sing which cors. with the unmarked form in CA is hafa*þ*. It retains the original /f/. In fact the only differnce between the two forms is the final fricative. It was changed to /þ/ in OE, because this is the the inflectional ending of the third pers. singular in OE.

6.7 Assimilation in the OE inf.

If we compare the OE infinitive with the CA supine, that is habban with [Hifðhan] (puting aside the change of vowels for the movement). we find that apart from the change of /b/ to /f/, /ðh/ has also been changd to /b/. This is because the stress pattern of the supine in CA is (2 1 3). The main stress falls upon the /f/. Main stress in a CA form is represented by a GS in OE. (12.34&4). Most of the time this stop is a dental, but there is another stop here in medial position in OE therefore /d/ was changed to /b/ by assimilation to the /b/ before it. Similarly if we compare the supine of the verb [qaTaɜa] (to cut) with the OE infinitive, we would have [qaTɜan] and OE cuttan. The difference is that /ɜ/ has been changed to /t/. Normally /ɜ/ would changed to /d/ in OE, when it occurs in medial or final position (8.18). In this case it has become /t/ because /td/ does not occur as a medial cluster in OE, so that /d/ was changed to /t/ by assimilation to the /t/ preceding it as the case above. In speech a GS gives a sound very close to that produced by a main stress.

L has taken the unmarked form of the CA RV as its infinitive but it has given it the ending -re. The reason may be that most CA verbs have /r/

or one of its cors, that is /z/, /ʒ/ or /n/ as ending so that L made all infinitives acquire -re as ending by analogy.

6.8 Changes that have taken place in the L Verb :

In L the two groups of 2 cons and 3 cons verbs of CA have become indistinguishable as such. The merger is caused mainly by two rules entering the synatx. The first reduces most three syl verbs to 2 syl by regulating the third syl to the infinitve only, that is making it the infinitive ending -re, if it is not already so. The second is a rule which affixes a third syl-re to 2syl verbs making them of three syl in the infinitive, while the 3 syl ones become of 2 syl when conjugated, dropping the last syl.

Ex:

[ðæcæra]	dicere	dicō	(to say mention)
[Radæra]	vadere	vadō	(to leave, go)
[ragæ:]	rogare	rogō	(to beg, plead)
[ɜæd'da]	addere	addō	(to add, count, join)

In the examples above one can easily recognize a 2 syl from a 3 syl verb in CA, but in the L cognates they are no longer recognizable.

Sometimes a 3 syl verb is given a fourth syl in the L infinitive [qara-Da] corrodere (to corrode) (sec 13.3).

And sometimes a 3 syl verb is reduced through clustering [færacæ] fricare (to rub), fricō 1st person sing.

6.9 Changes that have taken place in the OE V :

In OE many changes have taken place. Each will be discussed in due course. The main characteristic which we shall give examples of here may be expressed by one rule. All verbs may be derived or referred not to the unmarked form, as in CA, but to the infinitive. Since the infinitive is of two syl having the pattern of the CA supine CVCCAN, then most 3 syl verbs in CA have become of two syl in OE. When conjugated they become sometimes of one syl. This shortening process is furthered by deletion of one syl or clustering of two cons.

Ex :

CA UNM	CA SUP	OE INF	1st persing	Mod Eng
[ðærafa]	[ðærfæn]	drifan	draf	to drive
[wæzæna]	[wæznan]	wægen	wæg	to weigh
[sæfara]	[sæfaran]	faran	farep	to travel
[qadimæ]	[qoduman]	cuman	cumep	to come

In 1 the medial cluster of the CA supine has been removed to become, an initial cluster, by so doing the verb is contractd to one syl in the third pers sing.

In 3 the initial syl is deleted, so that the verb becomes a 2 syl V.

In 4 it is the medial syl that is deleted to give a 2syl verb.

6.10 The supine of 2 syl V in CA and OE :

While we have given the supine of three syl V above, the supine of 2 syl V is made, like all other categories from 2 syl V by the introduction of an affix, a semi-Vl, /y/ or /w/ to the RV.

Ex :

RV	Supine	OE inF	OE
[šaːta]	[sawtan]	sceotan	adj sceot, (to shoot)
[sæ:la]	[sæylæn]	seglan	segel (to sail, a sail)
[Hæ:la]	[Hewlan]		N hwile (a while)

While in CA the rule that introduces an infix into the supine concerns 2 syl verbs of the pat 1 and 2 above, in OE it is used much more frequently. The reason, is twofold. First some 2syl verb having a GS which has a differnt pat for the supine, as we shall see below, has come in OE under the dominion of this rule. Then some 3 syl verbs in CA have been reduced to 2 syl in OE. The result is that their inf is formed by the addition of an infix. Since the inf is the root of other tenses of the verb, we find it introduced into these as well.

CA	Sup in CA	OE inf	OE V	Mod Eng
1. [qatæla]	(qatlan)	cwillan	cwile	kill
2. [qadima]	(qoduman)	cwomman	cwome	to come
		cuman	cume*p*	
3. [ðæcara]	(ðicran)	cwiðan	cwiðe	quoth, say
4. [Dal'la]	(Dalædan)	dwellan	dwol	lost, heretical

Sometimes in OE a verb undergoes metathesis. This is part a wide movement in OE (14.16) and sometimes both the original verb without the infix added, as well as the new verb or adj exist side by side as in No.2.

6.11 Latin qu :

In L some words contain w or u. This (u) is not an infix apart, but forms together with /c/ a new sound qu. This sound has no morphological status or function as the medial infix in CA has. qu are inseparale. That is u does not occur after other sounds in L as part of a sound but only as a Vl or semi Vl. qu is therefore the result of phonetic merger. Significantly most of the cognate forms in CA which contain qu in initial position in L begin by /c/. We know that in L /c/ has been used to repalce CA /q/ a uvular plosive. This new sound was contrived to replace /c/ after the latter has taken the place of /q/ in L.

Ex : CA [cæssara] (to break, smash), L quassare.
CA [qasrah] (secluded area) L castra (camp) RV [qaSara]

In CA several interrogative adverbs begin by /c/ and inconsequence we find forms like CA [cæyf] L qualis (how) CA [cæm] (how much) L quam.

Moreover there is in CA the prefix [cæ-] (like, as, as if). It has wide range and precedes both N and pronouns to give new forms.

Ex : [cæ+ðælic] (like, this, likewise, in this manner). It is a pref+ dem. pro. In L it is quoquo; the medial part has been deleted.

When we recall that this prefix has very great potentials and that in L new forms are often made by analogy with the old, one can understand the rather large number of such advebials and pronouns in L.

6.12 Results of reduction in L and OE :

Many verbs have been reduced to two syl in L through deletion of the final syl and its repalcement by the infinitive ending -re and many verbs have been reduced in OE through making the two syl supine the infinitive and further reduced through assimilation of one of the medial consonants to another as we have shown above. What is the effect of this change on L and OE?

The result is that there are three kinds of relationships between a verb and the nouns and other categories from the same root.

1. If the verb has not been reduced, then the other categories have the same kind and the same number of consonants, unless other distrubances take place.
2. If the verb has been reduced, then the other categories, derived from it before reduction have one consonant more.

3. If the verb has been reduced and other categories of the language have been derived from it after reduction, then they also are reduced, conversly, if something has been added to the verb, like a semi-VI in OE or/ sc/ in L, these would asppear in the derived form, if it has been derived after this addition but not otherwise. These features are clues that denote when a form has been derived.

1. **Ex** : Forms derived from unreduced verb.

OE beorgan	N burg	CA [burgæn]	N [burg]	(tower)
L caligo	N caligo	CA [xælaga]	N [xælag]	(mist, barrier of steam)

2. **Ex** : Forms derived from reduced verbs

OE bacan	N bread	CA [xæbaza]	N [xubz]	(to bake) /x/:/c/ /:/d/
L capio	N capt-us	CA [qabaDa]	N [qabD]	(to capture) /t/:/D/

In the forms above the N has one more cons in L and OE than the verb, a cons that cors with that of CA. The N has been derived before reduction of the V.

3. **Ex** : Verbs where a cons has been added :

Ex : OE dwellan Adj dwol, CA [Dal'læ] adj [Da:l] (astry or heretical)
The adj dōl which cors with CA [Da:l] also exists in OE. This latter form has been derived before addition of /w/ as infix, while the previous one has been derived after it.

6.13 The V dicere in the three language :

If we examine the CA V below:

1. [ðæcæra] to mention, say, tell
2. [ðæ:cæra] to study, examine, learn
3. [ðæc'cara] to remind, admonish, bid.

How does this V appear in L and OE?

In L the verb is dicere in the inf, but dicō dixi when conjugated. The N derived from it is dictata (lessons, exercises) this N has the semanic content of TV 2 and not the RV which is to say, tell, affirm, and it has had one syl removed and replaced by that of the freq-di of the V dicto. The V itself has taken over the semantic content of TV 3. to remind, admonish, bid, warn. The N has been derived after the V has been deprived of its last

syl, and the three verbs have been merged into one. A thing one comes across quiet often in L.

In OE this V has undergone both deletion and metathesis which brings /∂/ to final position and deletes the final syl or -ra

1. cwe∂an, to say speak proclaim CA sup [∂icran]
2. cy∂an, P. ic, he cy∂∂e, to declare, reveal manifest prove.

The first V has had an infix /w/ introduced after the final syl has been deleted, because it has come within the power of the rule for two syl V. The second V which has a GS has not come under the power of this rule because of the GS. Such verbs in CA also form their N and other categories without the aid of an infix. This second verb has however the semantic content of no 2 and 3 together.

The N cy∂ere has been derived from the V before deletion or after it, while the adj cy∂ig has been derived after deletion, because nouns designating the doer of the action have the suffix -re in OE.

Such deletions were the cause of the separation of many verbs from their TV and many N and other categories from their RV. Many forms are found alone without their families. One has to go very far back to CA to be able to reclaim them.

6.14 Far reaching consequence :

The crucial consequences however is the breakdown of the morphological rules of two and three syl verbs. In CA each group of these verbs has got morphological rules by which nouns, adjectives as well as all other categories of the language are derived. The merger of two syl and three syl V groups in L and OE has resulted in the complete breakdown of the rules that governed each group.

As shown above three syl verbs have a medial infix in OE while patterns became no longer distinguishable in both L and OE as we shall perceive in the coming chapters. This merger had far reaching effects on both L and OE, and was the cause of many of the differences in patterns between L and OE and both and CA.

Chapter VII
Tense in the CA verb

7.1 The tense system of CA :

The CA verb has three persons. First, second and third person. It has three numbers, the single, the dual and the plural. It has two simple tenses. The simple present tense and the simple past tense. It has three moods :

1 the indicative mood
2 the imperative mood
3 the subjunctive mood

The best way to understand the tense system of CA is to think of the two simple tenses as two giant machines on which differnt spare parts and regulators may be applied according to the function they are required to do. This system gives the two machines great range, allows gradations of meaning and meticulous precision, when desired. It should not be difficult for the speaker of Modern English to understand such a system because Mod Eng is itself a two machine system. There is the simple present tense and the simple past tense. All the modal verbs and the shades of meaning they afford may be considered accessories to the two machines, just as in CA all the modal verbs (and there are two sets of modals in CA) are accessories to the two basic tenses. While it is not possible here to give in detail the verbal usage of CA, we shall give a few examples and hope that they would illustrate the remarks we have made.

7.2 Tense in L and OE :

Like CA, OE has also two simple tenses and a number of modals and auxilliaries. In L there are six tenses. The simple present corresponds roughly with the CA simple present, the perfect also has approximaly the usage of the CA simple past. The remaining tenses, are due to the L tendency to merge two entities or more together (see 7.7 below).

7.3 CA V conjugated :

Below we give the different tenses of the CA verb. This verb is the V [sæfara] [to travel], [sæfara] is the unmarked form. [sæfaran] is the supine. It has as congante OE faran. In OE the initial syl has been deleted.

[u-sæfir] I travel, simple present
[sæfar-tu] I travelled,I have travelled, simple past.
[sa-usæfir-u] I shall travel, simple future tense
[inny-mu-sæfir) I am travelling pres. cont, used as such and as near future.
[sæwfa u-sæfir] I shall travel, distant future
[qad u-sæfir] I might travel
[qad - sæfar - tu] I have travelled
[sa acunu musæfir] I shall be travelling, aux [cæ:næ]
[cuntu mu-sæfir] I was travelling, aux [cæ:næ]
[sa a-cun-u sæfar -tu] I shall have travelled, aux [cæ:næ] future perfect.

7.4 The future tenses in CA :

From the above examples we notice that there are gradations of the future in CA. The near future is made by the verb to be or [in'na] together with the participle of the main verb. It is rather like the present continuous in Mod Eng and may be used either for a present action or an action that one intends to do in the near future. The regular future is made by placing the particle [sa] before the present tense . It is used for the future generally, whether near or distant. The distant future is formed by means of the particle [sæwfa] placed before the present tense, it denotes that an action will take place in due course, or eventually. While the V [cæ:na] (not Mod Eng "can" but its twin) is used as an auxilliary to form the past continuous, and when it is preceded by (sa), the mark of the future, the future perfect also.

Let us now compare a verb in the simple present and past tense in CA and OE, then in CA and L and see where they approach and where they differ.

7.5 The verb (to drive) in OE and CA :

Present Tense		Past Tense	
ic drīf-e	[a-∂rif-u]	ic drāf	[∂æraf-tu]
∂ū drīf-st	[tæ-∂rif-u]	∂ū drif-e	[∂æraf-ta]
he drif-∂	[yæ-∂rif-u]	he drāf	[∂ærafa]
wē drīf-∂	[næ-∂rif-u]	wē drif-on	[∂æraf-n]
gē drīf-∂	[tæ-∂rifu:]	gē drif-on	[∂æraftum]
hie drīf-∂	[yæ-∂rifu:]	hie drif-on	[∂ærafou]

If we compare the OE and CA verbs on the phonetic level. On this level there is the change of CA /∂/ to /d/ in OE. In the CA alphabet these two sounds are placed together as twins, and we know that some of the old Arab tribes as well as L change /∂/ to /d/. In OE we are liable to find three different tendencies. The first is to retain /∂/, the second is to change it to /d/ as above and the third is to change /d/ to /∂/. The cause of these different tendencies will be discussed in due course.

On the morphological level, in the pres tense the root is [∂rif] in CA and ðrif in OE.

The difference lies in the fact that OE has removed the inflectional prefix that denotes tense and number and replaced it by the personal pronouns, which are not used in CA, for they would be redundant, if placed before the inflectional prefix, except in special cases (discussed later). That was the reason OE had to choose between the pronouns or the inflectional prefix. In the past tense there is the same difference. We notice that in the first, second pers pl in CA, where there is a nasal, a nasal is found in OE, and in the third pers where there is a long Vl (long Vl have AC with semi Vl) OE gives the third pers pl a nasal by analogy with the two other plurals.

If we look at the third pers sing and pl of the CA pres tense, we find the inflectional pref is (yæ). This pref appears in OE participles and infinitives as [ge] in some verbs. so that OE ge-bredan is in CA [ya-brudu] sup (bardæn) (to file, point) OE ge-bycgan is in CA [ya-biyЭ] sup [bayЭan] (to buy).

If we compare the CA present tense with the OE tense above, we find something that no longer exists in L and OE. It is that the inflectional affix changes position. In the present tense, and the present may be used for the future in certain cases, the action is not yet done, or not yet completed, so the inflectional affix is before it, in the past tense after the action is completed, the inflectional ending is after the verb, behind it, something done and over with. This is due to the underlying SS of the language.

7.6 Comparison of the V rogō in L and CA :

We have compard above between a three syl CA V and its OE cognate, let us now compare a 2 syl CA V and its L cognate. The V [ragæ:] L rogare means to beg, hope for, plead, request, ask.

Present Tense L	CA	Present Perfect L	Simple Past CA
rogō	[a-rgu:]	rogāvi	[ragæw-tu]
rogās	(ta-rgu)	rogāvisti	(ragæw-ta)
rogāt	[ya-rgu]	rogāvit	[ragæ:]
rogāmus	[na-rgu]	rogāvimus	[ragæw-na:]
rogātis	[tæ-rgu:]	rogāvitis	[ragæw-tum]
rogant	[ya-rgu:]	rogāverunt	[rægu:]

The first difference is that L uses the Vl /u/ as /o/ of the pres. tense throughout the V, as part of the root. In CA most two syl V form their past tense as well as other categories of the language by the aid of a semi-Vl as infix (/y/ or /w/). We find this semi-Vl or /w/ in the CA V above, while in the L perfect it has been replaced by /v/. This is something one should expect, since /w/ was a bilabial in L until Cicero's time after which it was changed to the labio-dental above.

7.7 On L tenses :

The simple present tense has approximately the same range in L and CA and so the L perfect tense has approximarly the same range as the CA simple past tense. Where have the four extra tenses that occur in L come from?

Before investigating the matter we shall have to mention a word about L affixes, whether prefixes or suffixes. Investigation has shown that these are not forms created fortuitously but they are either ful V, N, adj or adv in CA or (like L de- and re-) they are based on the ancient SS of the language. Some of these affixes will be discussed in the chapter concerned.

If we look at the L future perfect and pluperfect we find they have the same infix of the perfect followed by -re, /r/ in the SS of the language, when found in final position denotes continuation of movement. In the future perfect and the pluperfect there is extention of movement beyond the perfect and simple future whether in the past or towards the future, hence the addition of /r/ to these tenses (see Chap on SS for more on /r/).

The simple future tense and the imperfect have got the suffix-ba. In CA this /ba/ is a modal V in its own right. It is the verb [bæ:ta] (to spend the night). Like all modals in CA it precedes the main V (cf with Mod Eng). Now there is a tendency in L to delete the final syl of any form N or

V, that happens to coincide with the inflectional ending. (cf CA /qadæm/ L ped-em, CA /ðacara/ L dice-re, dicō [bæ:ta] happens to have the ending /t/ which coincides with the ending of the third pers sing in L in all tenses. In consequence it has become --ba . Sometimes we find forms reduced for the sake of convenience in compounds in both L and OE, though more in OE. This V as we have mentioned above means to spend the night, to pass a period of time between two mornings. If this period of time is from today to tomorrow then it denotes the future, but if this period of times was from yesterday to today, then it denotes the past, extending into the present or reaching towards it. In consequence it is used in L for both the future perfect and the imperfect.

If we look at the CA future [sæ] and the CA distant future having [sæwfa] before the main V, we notice that [sæwfa] has /w/ which is symbolic of making way, making an opening (see chap on SS) we find that the longer (sæwfa) denotes an opening into future, the extra sounds have given this semantic content. The L pluperfect has also got an extra syl. This is not conscious usage of the SS of the language at all, but simply an instictive or intuitive repetition of doing things as they had been done, possibly by analogy. This tendency may be seen in OE as well as Mod Eng, a new form placed in structure as the old was placed, even after the old has been lost and become insignificant. (see 7.13 below).

7.8 The tense Vl in CA and OE verbs :

In the CA unmarked form, that is the CA verb in the third pers sing, past tense the initial Vl is always an open Vl. In the past tense of three syl verbs it remains so throughout most verb. The open /a/ is in the SS of the language the symbol of the static, hence it belongs to the unmarked form and the verb in the past, after the action is done. In the present tense, that is once the verb is conjugated this Vl changes to /i/ or /u/ depending on the pat of the verb. (this applies to three syl V, two syl V are discussed below). The Vl of the passive is closed /u/ to signify action upon another. So that there is :

Pres tense	past	passive
i	a	u

If we look now at Mod Eng V, we find these three Vl in verbs like sing sang sung. The difference is that the Vl of the passive has become that of a participle.

While all verbs undergo a change of Vl with the change from the unmarked form of the past to the present in CA, this characteristic is retained by a group of verbs in OE. Such verbs are called strong verbs, while verbs which do not undergo such change are called weak verbs, (for further discussion of strong verbs see C. Bauch 1968, P. 71).

Tense Vl in two syl verbs in CA :

In CA two syl verbs undergo the same changes as three syl ones and an additional change in the past tense. Examination of a typical two syl verb (to call, say) shows :

1 pers [qoltu]	1 pers pl [qolna)]
2 pers [qolta]	2 pers pl [qoltum]
3 pers [qa:læ]	3 pers pl [qa:lu]

In this verb only the unmarked form of the third pers sing and the third pers plural retain the open Vl, while all other persons have undergone a change of Vl. This is a characteristic of two syl V of the pat CA:CA.

In OE some of the strong verbs also undergo a change of Vl in the past tense for the first and third pers singular. The change is not in the same persons as in CA. This is probably due to the merger of the two syl and three syl groups in OE. More research is needed to settle the matter.

7.9 The dental suffix in OE, CA and L :

In all CA verbs of whatever pattern the mark of the past tense for the first pers sing, the second pers sing and the second pers pl is a dental suffix, together with a change of Vl in the verbs where a change of Vl occurs in the past (some of the two syl group).

1 pers sing- tu
2 pers sing- ta
3 pers pl- tum

This suffix appears in OE as the mark of the past tense in weak verbs (verbs that do not undergo a change of Vl) it appears as -ede -ode -and de.

While in CA it is the mark of the three persons given above in OE it is used throught the verb, while the personal pronouns are used to give person and number. In other words it takes the place of the change of Vl to mark the differnce between past and present in the verbs where no change of Vl takes place (see opus cit).

In L this dental of the CA past tense appears as-to in the past participle, supines and the future participle (see J.F. Mountford 1964 p. 97).

It appears in some OE participles also particularly where no other stop occurs.

Ex : 1. OE beonde, CA [bentu] (to be)
2. OE cuman part cumende, CA [qadimtu]
3. OE cunnan P cuðu, CA [cænantu]

In no.3 the final dental has been changed to a fricative, a tendency one encounters somtimes in OE in verbs as well as in the other categories of the language.

7.10 Negation in CA :

In CA there are several particles with which one can express the negative. They give a gradation of negative conditions and different nuace. The choice of such particles is not arbitrary. It is based on the SS of CA. In the SS of the language nasals are the symbol of negation, obstruction, impediment. (the air is not allowed to pass through the mouth). Both /m n/ are symbolic of negation, but /m/ is the more ponderous and is pronounced by the closing of the lips, hence finality, ending completion of fact, while /n/ as a negative is less absolute and more negotiable.

Ex :		
	1. [læm ara - hu]	I have not seen him
	2. [læn ara - hu]	I shall not see him
	3. [læn ara - h]	I will not see him, I refuse to

1. When the neg ends in /m/ it expresses an accomplished fact (I have not seen him). This is a fact that cannot be changed because time cannot be turned back. It is followed by the simple pres. tense but /læm/ gives the V the sense of the present perfect.

2. In 2 the matter is negotiable, or subject to change because /læn/ gives the pres tense a future sense (I think I shall not see him, but I may be wrong).

3. Has a different stress pat the main stress fall on /læn/ so that it signifies greater negation, refusal or denial.. nevertheless it has /n/ not /m/ because even though I refuse to see him, I might be prevailed upon to do so. It is not yet an accomplished fact.

7.11 Comparison of Neg sentences in L, OE and CA :

If we compare OE Ne cræwp the hana to -dag
L Non cantabit hodie gallus
CA [læn ya -SiyH a diyc al yawm]
Mod Eng the rooster will not crow today

In the above sentences the structure is the same in OE and CA except that CA places the def art before the N for day, while OE places the part to-. The structure is neg+V+NP+NP as adv.

The L sentence is slightly different because L has separated the V from its subject by the adv hodie (for discontinuous structures in L see A. Hill appendix 1958). There is very great freedom in structure in L because in it the ancient SS has become obsolete and the inflectional endings have remained. In CA there is freedom of movement but less than in L, because in CA the position of a word in structure is significant on the level of SS (as we shall see when discussing structure) Mod Eng is the least flexible of the four languages because it has dispensed with most inflectional endings and relies mainly on the position of a word in the sentence.

The sentence above may be considered a subjunctive expressing futurity in L, OE and CA. In Mod Eng "shall" gives the subjunctive. We notice that what cors with Mod Eng (shall not) is /læn/ in CA. The reason is that modern languages are significanct on the morphological level; while CA has significance on the level of SS. So that /l/ is the symbol of extention into the future, while /n/ is the symbol of negation. Supposing the tense were the pres perfect. One would use "has not" in Mod Eng and would use /lam/ in CA /l/ for extetion into the past, and /m/ for complete negation.

7.12 Negatives in L, CA and OE :

The negative [mæ] is the most powerful in CA. It has /m/ the most ponderous of the nasals and /æ/ the most low (hence symbolically least mobile of the Vl). It is used for absolute and emphatic negation, refusal or denial. Supposing one asks someone :

"Did you kill the man?" He would answer in CA, [mæ qatalta-hu] "no, I did not kill him."

The ponderous /mae:/ does the work of both "no" and "not" in the Modern English sentence. If he answers [læm aqtula-hu] (I did not kill him).

It is possible that he just hit him [mæ] on the other hand denies categorically that he had anything to do with it.

How many of the CA negatives remain in L and OE ?

In OE one finds nà, no, ne and their compouds. /na/ cors roughly with CA [mæ]. (there is a tendency in OE to change /m/ to /n). Ne has approximaely the range of [læn] and [læm]. It is possible that the initial /l/ has been deleted by analogy with na, no. In L non has the range of [læn] [læm], in fact it is a merger of these two. /l/ was changed to /n/ by EC. There are also ni, ne and their compounds (like neque and nihil). There are two things to observe here. First that nasals are no longer symbolically significant as negatives, but the fact that they predominate in negatives in L and OE is a clue, among numerous others, that these languages were originally based on SS.

7.13 The imperative mood :

In CA there is a special tense for the imperative as there is in L. There are also several gradations of semantic content in giving commands from a direct imperative to polite request or suggestion. All is achieved by means of replacing a particle by a modal or another particle. Let us now compare the imperative in L, CA and Mod Eng. The V chosen is L audire, which is in CA [æðina] to give ear, to listen. From this V comes the word for ear, in CA, L and Mod Eng (cf Proto Ger auzon*, CA [oðon].

L	CA	Mod Eng
audî, audito	[æðin]	Hear (thou)
audito	[li ya eðin]	let him hear
audîte, auditote	[æðinu:]	hear (ye)
audiunto	[li-yaðinu]	let them hear

In the forms above CA differentiates between direct command to a person present, and command to a person who is absent, to be transmitted through a third party. For the person present, that is direct address, the imperative is used. One V only is required. But for a command to someone who is not present, the present tense preceded by [li] is used. In the SS of CA /l/ is the symbol for extention, reaching out. It is followed by /i/ which denotes in SS going from one point to another hence a command from one person to another.

Another thing one notices is that in direct command the V comes before the pronoun which gives person and number, in fact this pronoun is completely ellided because the person is before you, he knows whether he is one or many, who or what he is, but theoretically it is analysed as a pro coming after the verb, which is the important element in such a structure. In indirect command the infectional affix comes before the V to show to whom such a command should go.

L makes no distinction as we seen above. It does not differentiate between a command to the person present and a command to the person who is not present. We notice two forms of the V for direct command, the form in -to is usually found in legal documents for legal use.

The interesting thing here is that Mod Eng makes the same distinctions that CA makes. It distinguishes between direct and indirect command and makes the V precede and the pronoun is ellided in direct command. The V let is not the same as the ancient particle /li/ however, /li/ has been lost and in its place the V 'let' appears in structure.

7.14 The passive voice :

In CA as in L there is a special tense for the passive . In CA there are two tenses as there are in the active voice. The simple present tense and the simple past tense. All other tenses are realized by means of affixes particles and modal as in the active voice. In L there are as many tenses in the passive as there are in the active voice, that is six tenses.

In CA these two tenses are made to have great range and power of expression partly because of the accessories mentioned above, and partly becanse of a rule that states that the passive shall not be used unless the agent is not known or not mentioned. This rule is based on the SS of the language. If the agent is important then one uses the active voice, if the important thing is the act, or that upon which the act falls, then all attention is oriented towards the important feature. This disengages the passive for numerous uses and saves the structure from redundancy.

The passive present :

In the present tense the passive is often used in sentences like the following :

Ex : [yu-Saf'fæ al mæ:e' awalan] (the water is passed through a sieve first).

This kind of structure tells the manner of doing things. It is used in cooking recipes or chemical formulas etc.

[yunƐæ: a'ragul] (the man is to be mourned) the implication is that this is the proper, the right thing to do. He is worthy of it. Hence what is feasible, what is right.

[yuRlaq æl misraf] (the bank is closed) at such an hour. It states a fact that takes place customarily, habitually.

Supposing we reverse the order of the sentence placing the subject first. [al misraf usraq] (the bank is being robbed). This order does not state what its customary, but that this is something unusual or sensational being done at this moment. The position of SV in CA is significant on the level of SS and contributes to the semantic content, as in this example.

The past tense :

We have given above a few examples of the uses of the present tense, we shall do the same thing with the past tense order in CA :

[qotila a layθ] the lion was killed VS

[a layθ qotil] the lion was killed SV

The first sentence gives the facts and no more, the second signifies that this is something important, admirable unexpected. This effect is achieved by bringing the undergoer of the action first, which in CA would normally come last.

7.15 Auxiliary and Modal verbs in CA :

There are two large groups of modal verbs in CA, which grammarians have classified according to their syntactic properties and called [cæ:na] and sisters and [in'na] and sisters. These two groups allow the description of time and change in it with accuracy. Some of them form the negative (apart from negative particles like [mæ]) and some are used for the subjunctive mood. Many of these verbs have been lost in L and OE and most of the few that survive have become regular verbs or affixes. Therefore we shall not deal with them in any detail, a few examples suffice in this outline. Since many of these verbs depict time, they have the semantic power of V+adv, although they are syntactivally verbs that carry tense.

Ex : [bæ:ta] to spend the night. This V appears in OE as a regular V, it is the V bidan (to live in).

[aSbaHæ] to become overnight, to turn the next day.
[aDHæ:] to be full day.
[mæsæ:] to become evening or the approach of night. From this V comes the OE word missa (mess). In OE it means evening prayers, in CA the more general meaning of evening.
[cæ:da] almost has, nearly
[æwšæca] about to happen.

7.16 The Verb to be :

The auxiliary which remains as such in CA and IE languages is "to be" [in'na], the head of the one of the two large groups of auxilliaries. [In'na] is a defective verb in the sense that it has no future and no past tense. In consequence a past tense and a future was given to it from two other V in IE languages. [in'næ] appears as the root (as) is SKr, 'es' in Gr. The final /s/ in IE languages represents the GS of CA, while the /n/ has been deleted. It appears in the first pers sing as /I am/ cors /m/ : /n/. The past tense is made of a second V. The V was, the V /wæl'la/ in CA which means to remain in IE.

This V is morphologically the cog of 'was'. The GS is represented by /s/ as in the case above, and the /l/ deleted also as above. [wæl'la] in CA means to be past, to be over, to become the past, to be gone. It gives differnt shades of past action.

The future which has given the V its name is the V beon in OE. The sup is [bæynan] in CA and the unmarked form [bæ:na]. It means to appear, to turn out, to become, to evolve into. An action or change from the present to a point in the future.

7.17 It is not unusual to find in L and OE two verbs merged into one or one verb made of two verbs, as pres and past. The V ga (to go) in OE has as P eòde. In CA these are two different V from two different roots and belonging to two different paradigms. The first is the V [gæ:æ°] the second is the V [ɜæ:dæ].

7.18 The root C- N in CA, OE and L :

In CA there are four verbs of the root (C-N), one modal as well as a freq verb. The three usual twins together with the modal verb [cæ:na]

1. [cænæ:] to allude, to imply, to hold inside but refer to only by a characteristic or emblem. Sup [cenæyah].
2. (cæ:na) to become laid in a corner, hidden place, hence weak, humble, powerless, of little consequence
3. [can'na] to have or hold inside, in the heart, to keep protected or hidden, to know without revealing.
4. [cænæ-h] to understand, to know the core or essence of, to be able to, to have the power for. Sup [cænæhæn]
5. There is also the frequentative [cænænæ] and it means to hold in deep protection or secrecy.
6. [cæ:na] to be, to exist, to become, to be eternal or always, to be expected, to extend from the past to the future.

This V is the most important verb in CA. It has the range of the verb **to be** in IE languages, and it takes its place both as auxiliary, to form the continuous tenses, and also as a full verb meaning to be or to exist.

If this verb has such great powers and such wide range, why was it replaced by [in'na] or the V. **to be** in IE languages?

The answer to this question may be found below.

In OE there are four verbs which have the consonants (C-N)
1. cunnan : to become acquainted with, to know
2. cinnan : to generate, procreate
3. cennen : to beget conceive bring forth
4. cunnian : to prove, try, inquire

If we compare the CA verbs of this root and their OE cognates we find that CA 4 cors with OE in semantic content. These verbs do not have idential semantic content but the common denominator in both OE and CA of something brought from the inside or something internal.

The verb [cæ:na] means to be, to exist, to be created. In semantic content it is rather close to these twins, but in syntactic functions it is a modal and the head of a very important group of modals in CA. In CA it was possible to retain it together with the other verbs of the same root because the pattern of each verb differentiates it from the others, in OE the original patterns have merged, so a verb having different phonetic features was required. So the head of the second large group of modals [in'næ] took the place of [cæ:na].

If this is the case in OE, why has L not retained [cæ:na] nor any of the verbs of this root? One must bear in mind that there are two contrastive sounds in CA /q/ and /c/. The verb having the root (c-n) has entered into

the language through Greek, and even before that there were other forms in L which have (c-n) because in L /h x H g/ are sometimes replaced by /c/.

Ex L canō (to sing) CA [Ran'na]

L cena (place to eat and drink) CA [Hæ:nah]

L canna (reed, small vessel) CA (qanæ:h) taken into L from Gr.

One must not forget the extensive use of the prefix con (cum). All these factors contributed to make it more convenient to use /in'na / of different phonetic features rather than the over-crowded (C-N) root.

The V cnawan in OE comes from the same root. It has submitted to the rule which places an infix in 2 syl V. It is not infrequent that one comes across the same V once having an infix and once without it in OE (18.2). Its semantic content is like the first OE V and it has entered the language through another source as V which have this infix have.

In L the RV does not exist but its TV [cæn'næ] appears as nosco. The medial GS has been interpreted as /sc/ as it often is in L (6-5). There is an earlier gnovi which suggests that the RV once existed. In L one form remains but it carries the semantic content of the three TV.

The V is found in OHG as knajan which cors with CA sup (cinayatun). CA /y/ is often interpreted as j in Germanic languages.

Since the phonetic potentials of this root have already been used, the IE languages have substituted the head of the second largest group of auxiliaries to do the work that this root does in CA.

Verb + Prefix

7.19 The prefix a- in L, OE and CA :

Prefixes play an improtant role in CA morphology. They modify and regulate the meaning on the semantic level. It is not possible to go into the details of the use of prefixes in CA, in this work, but we shall discuss briefly some of the prefixes which where found to have L or OE cognates.

The first prefix we shall discuss is found in all Semitic tongues as well as all the IE languages we have looked into (Gr, L, O Fr, SKr, OHG and OE). It appears as a Vl that precedes verbs. In CA it is /a/.

In L, Fr and Gr, it is more often /e/ and is sometimes found as /a/. In OE it is more often /a/ than /e/. This difference is part of the general reduction of Vl which we have noted earlier. In order to conceive the function of this pref. one must look upon language as a gradual transition

from static to less static, to dynamic and more dynamic. This pref raises the morph it preceeds from less dynamic to more dynamic power.

In CA it makes an intransitive verb take an object, hence becoming a transitive V, it makes a V that takes one object take two objects, and it changes an adj. from the nom. degree to the comp degree. It can change the action of a trans V from less active to more active. As the examples below will show, it has the same capacity in L and OE.

Meaning in Eng	RV	V+Pref	Modified M	Change in syn properties
1. to become hard solid	[gamuda]	[agmada]	to make hard	intras to trans
2. to prune	[qal'læmæ]	aqlama	to acclimatize	trans to 2 obj
3. to tell, say	[cælæmæ]	L acclāmō	to call, shout	greater range
4. to shoot	[šæ:Ta]	[ašæ:Ta]	to throw away, far	greater power
	OE sceòtan	a-sceotan		

In 1 and 2 the verb has undergone change from intra to trans. While we find of 2in Fr. acclimater (4.5).

The number of verbs which carry this pref is very great in the three is languages under discussion Cf CA [wagasa] [awgasa] OE egesa to be afraid, to make afraid in this V the original /w/ has been deleted in OE as in other V also, or [hamaga] [ahmaga] and OE hunger and ahunger (to be hungry, to make hungry), or CA [særa϶æ] and [æsra϶a] L cog accelere (to hurry and to hurry up) Gr epheron and CA [æbraæ°] (to bear and to bring forth issue) this verb is beran and æberan in OE. The number of cog forms carrying this pref are very many indeed.

As mentioned above this pref changes an adj in the pos. degree to one in the comp degree in CA.

Ex : [wæ:si϶] (to be wide) [æwsa϶] (wider)

In OE it has the power to change nouns into adverbials of which many are found in Mod Eng.

Ex : OE cyn and a -cyn, board and aboard (akin)

Mod Eng akimbo, amiss, afloat, awake etc.

In some Semitic tongues this pref is found as /h/ or /s/ or /š/ and was believed to have been originally an /s/ which has changed to /a/ in CA. If we bear in mind that CA is the oldest of the Semitic tongues and the one that has changed least, and also that it is a VI in all the IE languages we

have searched into, and that CA has been separated from these at a much earlier date than the separation of the Semitic tongues from each other, so that there are several channels of communication where it is a VI. We can only conclude, that it was originally a VI in the IE language and in the mother language of the Semitic tongues that has not left the peninsula, therefore it is the other Semitic tongues which have changed it to other sounds, possibly through the influence of non-Semitic languages. The change must have started so : that it became an /h/ as in Hebrew then /s/ then finally /š/ because as we shall see (chap VIII) there is AC between /a/ : /h/, /h/ : /s/ /s/ : /š/). One cors led to another, but the original was an /a/.

7.20 A-T :

The next pref. we have found remnants of in L and OE is made of two parts, an initial /a/ and a medial /t/ as infix. It changes a tras verb to a reflexive one. Significantly, according to the SS of the lang the inital /a/ gives power to the verb, while the medial /t/ denotes that the action is internal. This prefix is less frequent in CA than the previous one and very infrequent in L and OE. The reason is that possibly with the great changes and metathesis that these languages have undergone a medial /t/ is liable to be assimilated or deleted.

Ex : The CA verb [Har'rama] means to forbid as holy or sacred; It is the TV of [harama]. OE hremman has the semantic content of the RV.

In CA the V+ pref derived from this V is [eHtærama]. It means to revere, to consider of high status, to esteem. It is found in OE as ehtian. The medial /r/ and /m/ have been deleted in OE (the CA supine is [eHteraman]) while only the beginning and final inflectional ending remain. In L which takes the unmarked form as its inf, the verb appears as estimare. Here the medial /H/ has been changed to /s/ and not deleted because the main accent in the CA original is upon it /H/ and a change of position has taken place between the final /m/ and the /r/ preceding it in order to furnish the /r/ required for the infinitive ending. So that L estimare was originally the cog of CA [ehtærama] and OE ehtian is the cog of CA [ehteraman], which are the unmarked form and the supine of the verb respectively.

7.21 The pref /in/ has in CA one usage. When it precedes a verb it adds to it the semantic content of internal action, or action reflected on self, or impersonal action (of the elements) which is in a sense internal, or having no external agent.

In L and OE this pref is a merger of this CA one with other forms (adv and pref:) so that it has many uses semantically, in OE and L while only one in CA. We shall give here examples of this usage only. (For the other uses the Oxford Dictionary is should be consulted).

Ex : CA [in-cæb'bæ] to fall upon, concentrate on, occupy oneself with. Its L cog is in-cubo.

CA [in -æðæ] to have harm reflected on one, to have the result of an action, a harmful thing fall upon someone.

The OE cog is in-codu. The Vl stop of CA is interpreted as a con stop in OE (5.16).

7.22 (est) is a pref that precedes CA verbs. It is highly productive and its semantic content is to seek, to ask for

Ex : [Rafara] (to forgive), [est-aRfara], (to ask forgiveness).

There is evidence to show that it was found in L and in OE but the medial /s/ has been deleted in Mod F it is sometimes merged with the word stem.

Ex : [Safæ:] means pure, or clear, [estafa] means to choose, to pick the pure or choose from among. Hence OF estoff and Mod Eng, stuff, Fr. etoffe. (for a L ex of this pref see 2.25).

7.23 The prefix /tæ/ :

The prefix /ta/ in CA gives the verb that it precedes three different powers:

1. It can have two agents
2. It can portray action and reaction on self.
3. It can depict repetition of action more than once, or several times.

Ex : [tæbæɜædæ] they went away from each others

[tæcas'sara] to break by itself, impersonal V

[tæna:θara] to scatter by itself

[tæratæbæ] arranged in successive stages

[tælaɜaba] to manouver cunningly, the RV is [læɜiba] or to play.

In OE to-has the same capacity as its ancient cognate, approximately.

Ex : to-atican: to increase.

to-beran : to carry in different directions.

to-burstan : to burst or break in different directions.

to-brecan : to break to pieces.
to-drifan : to drive in different directions.
to-hreosan : to fall to pieces (of buildings).

We notice that it retains the idea of two agents in the action in two different directions, but not as clearly as in CA and also the idea of repetitive action that is in breaking or cutting in several pieces and in a few cases the impersonal use of occuring without external agent.

CA /ta/ or OE to is a neat and concise way of expressing double or reciprocal action. It is one of the means of economy of the language. It is not the same as L de- however with which it is sometimes confused. L de- is discussed below.

7.24 The prefixes re- in L :

In L there are two prefixes whose role as prefixes is on the semantic level the same as their role on the level of SS in CA. In other words L has taken the ancient symbols and used them as prefixes without altering their significance as symbols. So that they do as prefixes in L, the same function they do as symbols in CA. The examples below will illustrate the point.

Ex : CA [ragæɜæ] to return, [rafaDa] to refuse [rædæɜæ] to set back ward off [radæfa] to come after, on the trail of [radeama] to re-cover, close or bury after opening.

In all the verbs above /r/ is not a prefix but an integral part of the verb. Each of the verbs above belongs to a V paradigm. In fact any verb we examine in CA beginning with /r/ is found to have semantic content which denotes either repetition of movement or movement done in successive stages. This is due to the fact that /r/ a strong trill in CA, where the tongue is moved again and again, has become, due to its manner of articulation the symbol of repetition, in the SS of CA. L uses it in the same capacity but as a pref.

Ex : L re-cubō (to lay back again) re-currō (to run back) (hasten) re-donō (to give back) re-ferō (to bear back).

In fact this pref is highly productive in L and one may find numerous examples.

7.25 The prefix de - in L :

In L the prefix de- has the semantic value of put down, put under, step on. This is the same semantic value it has as symbol, for in the SS of CA in the contrast of up and down it has the significane of down opposite its antihesis /D/ which is palatalized and like all the palatalized stops signifies the higher or the upper.

Ex : dē-currō (to run down) dē-cidō (to fall down, fall away) dē-crēscō (to become less, diminish).

When the verb already has such semantic content its role is rather like that of an intensifier, when the verb has an opposite semantic content to the above it acts as a negative.

Ex : from CA : [dæ:sa] to step on, upon, over. [dæfæna] to bury [dæbaRa] to make flat and soft, [dæbægæ] to paint or make signs on or over [dæxæla] to go inside, hence in or upon.

While the symbolic significace of /d/ is clear in denoting what is down, all verbs that contain it in CA do not necessarily mean down, although all have related meanings, partly because /d/ has other roles as well in the SS of the language opposite /D/ (see 20.26) and partly because the semantic content depends on the other consonants in the verb as well. While re-always denotes repetition of the action of the consonants after it, /d/ signifies part of this action so that the action is varied. The same thing may be said of the L prefixes re- and de. -re as a prefix (when it is not part of the root) always denotes repetition, but de- as a prefix may denote low down or negation or down then up again depending on the semantic content of what comes after it.

7.26 The prefix (M Vl) :

In CA /m/ as we have shown previously is the symbol of impediment, lack of movement, also ending or accomplished fact. In the contrast of dynamic vs static, it is the symbol of the static. From its symbolic significance springs its role as prefix. In CA/ m/ together with a Vl changes the dynamic into the static. In other words it changes verbs on the morphological level into nouns or adjectives, depending on the pattern acquired and the role the word plays in structure.

The Vl that follows /m/ decides the case of the form that it precedes. If it is /a/ the most ponderous of the Vl, then the N is usually a locative something tangible or undergoer of action.

Ex : [mælƏæb] playground [maxzan] store. It cog maggazino, Fr magazin (mæctab) place where one writes. It can be used for office or desk, [mæqtoul] slain, [maqhour] conquered.

If the Vl is /i/ which denotes extention, or going from one point to another (the lips are slit open) The N is an instrumental, what one does things with.
Ex : [miftaH] key [mifac] screwdriver.

If the Vl following it is /u/ it usually denotes the doer of the action. It purses the lips, a movement of concentration or compactness, which in this case denotes concentration of power, hence the doer of the action.

Ex : [muƏalem] teacher [murabi] usurer.

In order to understand the role this prefix has acquired in L and OE, let us first examine one word that has entered into European languages from CA within the pale of history. The common everyday word mattress. It is in Sp and Pg almatraque. It materasso, OF materas, Mod Fr matelas. Mod Eng mattress.

CA [al matraH] The RV is the V [TaraHæ] to throw, cast, spread out. In this N, it is preceded by the pref / ma/. In modern languages the prefix has become part of the noun and is no longer distinguished as a prefix. In the examples from L and OE below the same process has taken place.

Does the RV from which this N comes exist in L and OE?

In OE the inf is þrawan, whose CA cog is the sup [TarHaen] (to throw) and in L it is the V trahere, first pers sing trahō whose CA cog is /a-TraHu/. While OE has retained the main semantic content of the verb, to throw or spread out, L has taken the secondary meaning which is to spread then pull back again, to give and take, hence to argue, to pull back, to detract. In arithmatic in CA it means to subtract. The verb in L means in consequence to drag, to take in, to bring, to draw off or pull off.

(for the cors /H/ : /q/ /H/:w/ given above see chap 8.9, 8.14).

The pref /mæ/ has very great range and is very productive in CA. In L and OE it does not exist as a prefix anymore but has become merged with the words it used to precede. Sometimes we find both forms with /ma/ and other forms without, but most of the time there are only remnants to show that these forms once existed.

Ex : OE edel, CA [Ə:del] (just, good, nobel)

OE Mæðel, place where justice is executed, assembly, judicial council.
L mens, CA [mur] (mind)
L memorai (what the mind remembers, memories)

There is a very large number of words in both L and OE which begin with this pref as part of the root or stem and no longer as a pref. Since there is a tendency to achieve more compact form much of the form where, /ma/ exists is deleted or reduced, particularly if it is to be used in a compound.

Ex : OE mæg (kinsman) is in CA [muqarab] the RV is [qaruba] (see 12.5)
This word is used in compounds in OE
mæg-burh (kindred family, relatives, tribe)
mæg-cwealm (murder of father or kinsman).

7.27 Gradation and potential in the CA verb :

A CA V is not the same as a V in modern languages. It has gradations and potentials of which its modern descendants retain but a few. Let us take a 3 cons V and trace its potentials,

The verb [cæbara] (to grow) has two TV like all 3 cons V.

1. [cabara] to grow intras V
2. [cæb'bara] to make grow, trans, verb
3. [cæ:bara] to vie with in biggness, to contend or argue with. Trans : V having two agents

The three verbs above have open Vl. Supposing we reduce the Vl, would that have any significane?

[cabura] to grow great in size, huge of large or big body, intras V
[cæbira] to advance in years, grow aged, intrans V.

Supposing we apply some of the prefixes we have previously examined.

[a+qbara] to look upon as big or great, hence to revere, esteem trans V.
[tæ+cæbara] to become or grow pround, intrans V
[est-tæcbara] to seek pride, hence to be haughty, arrogant
[mu-tæcaber] adj, proud, haughty.

One may compare a CA V then, like the whole tense system of CA, to a machine with several spare parts that one may apply to the base at will. It is not a fixed semantic entity and its potentials both semanitcally and syntactically are far beyond a single lexeme.

How many words of this V, for like all CA V it has a family and one may derive from it N or adj at will, exist in Mod Eng?

From this V, in Mod Eng, we have : big, bridge, great CA [cabyrir] [cubry] [cæbur] respectively each of these words looks different from the others because they have enterd Mod Eng through two different sources, and so submitted to different phonological and morphological rules.

(for the changes that 1 and 2 have undergone see 9.14 for 3 see 14.16).

Chapter VIII

Natural Correspondence

8.1 Natural Correspondence :

A comparative study of over ten thousand cognate forms has shown that between one phoneme and other phonemes there are certain relatinships which hold true in all spoken languages, because they do not belong to one language or even one group of languages, but to the nature of sound itself. That is the reason we shall call such correspondence natural correspondence (NC). We can distinguish three kinds of NC.

1. Allophonic cors (AlC)
2. Affinitive cors (AC)
3. Contrastive cors (CC)

8.2 AlC :

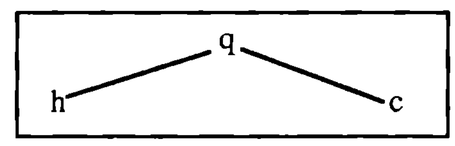
AlC is the simplest and very often the most frequent kind. In the two cog forms, CA [wara:] and OE.wara (people, nation) there is AlC between /w/ and w, and /r/ in CA and OE. In other words we may call each phoneme the allophone(1) of its cors in the cog form. In the CA and L cog forms gulfus. and [gurf] we have AlC between /g/ and g /f/ and f. But what is the cors between /r/ and /l/? For this kind of cors one meets very often indeed.

8.3 The cors of /q/ :

If we take one phoneme and examine its different cors, we would be able to see more of this kind of cors. Let us take a phoneme that does not exist in L and OE, so that we do not get cases of AlC. AlC we shall use only as a starting point, a bridgehead from which to tackle other relationships. If we take the phoneme /q/, it is a uvular sound pronounced far back in the throat, a strong plosive. In the old CA alphabet it is one of a trio. It is placed between /f/ and /c/. In other words between the phoneme with which it has AC which is /c/ and the phoneme with which it has CC which is /f/. This gives us a clue that /q/ has AC with stops generally and CC with fricatives in general. Let us look at some cors of /q/ in L and OE to see if this clue is relevant in these languages.

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA
heart hemp horn head	heart hænap horn heafod	cordis cannabis cornus caput	[qalb] [qanab] [qarn] [qobætu]

In the above examples (if we put aside other differences for the moment, since they are discussed elsewhere in this work) we find /q/ is replaced by AC in the L words and by CC in the OE ones. In other words L has chosen the phoneme that has the closest affinities to it, while OE has chosen a phoneme that has contrastive qualities with it(2). Does that imply that everytime there is /q/ in CA we should expect /h/ in OE and /c/ in L ? Not necessarily. This would not happen unless there were an overall rule (a rule that dominates the greater part of the language) which decrees that /q/------> c/ in L and /q/--------> h/ in OE. What we have shown above are simply cases of triangular correspondence.(2)



8.4 Triangular cors :

Since each consonant has sounds with which it has affinities and sounds with which it has contrastive relationships, we meet triangular cors, (tri cors) rather often in the comparison of L and OE. In fact such tri cors is responsible for many of the differences between the two languages as we shall have occasion to observe again. To return to the first tri cors we have given above, is there a rule in OE that decrees that /q/ should be interpreted as/h/ every time it occurs or at least in most cases? Let us see.

8.5 Cors of /c/ in OE :

A statistic sample of OE words beginning with /c/ and which have CA cognates (they are about 85% of all OE words beginning with c) gives us the following figures :

q	c	x	misc sounds
32%	30	18%	20%

The figures above denote that the number of the cors of /q/:/c/ are as many, in fact a little more than those of /c/:/c/ and that /x/ a sound not found in OE, constitutes 18% occurs rather frequently (see Bynon for modern examples in Ger.).

8.6 Cors of /h/ in OE :

Let us now take a statistic sample from the cors of/h/ in OE, Here we get the following figures:

H	h	other fricatives	q
60%	22%	14%	4%

The cors /q/:/h/ is clearly not an overall rule in OE. If we examine the forms above beginning with /h/, we find they have certain characteristics in common. They are all words containing three cons. In OE a great number of words have undergone deletion to two cons. Why have these escaped? Then we do not find the RV from which these words were derived. This alone is not extraordinary considering the number of V missing in OE, but together with the previous datum, that is the lack of deletion it gives a clue that perhaps these words were intoduced through another Germanic language. Let us take the only word whose RV is found in OE. The words is heord (herd). Its SKr cog is cardhas, its CA cong is [qatiy϶]. The RV is in CA [qaTa϶a] and in OE the inf is cuttan (to cut), its CA cog is (qaT϶an). In this OE inf.

The cors is the following: /q/:/c/ /T/:/t/ /϶/:/t by assimilation to /t/. The first two cors are cases of AC, the third is assimilation.

The cors of the N heord are the following : /q/:/h/ by CC /T/:/d/ by AC/϶/:r/ by CC.

The words has undergone metathesis bringing /϶/ to medial position. This suggests strongly that the langauge from which heord came is other than OE, since its correspondences are different, which denote that the phonetic rules of the language are different. Research in Germanic languages may explain how these words have entered OE (see chap XVIII).

8.7 Cors of /c/ in Latin :

The cors of /c/ in L are the following :

q	c	x	misc	H+h
46%	14%	19%	15%	6%

There are differences as well as similarities between L and OE as the figures above show. The similarities are mainly due to the innate features of the sounds compared, the differences are what makes one distinguish one language from another. We find that /c/ is the main cors of /q/ in both languages, that /x/ is often replaced by /c/ in both languages. Such similarities are due to the nature of the relationship between these sounds, they are not peculiar to L or OE. The ratios of the cors of these sounds are however characteristics of each language. Moreover we notice that /H/ is sometimes replaced by /c/ in L. This is because /H/ does not exist in L and /h/ is used very sparingly indeed. Most of the time both sounds are either deleted or replaced by one of their cors as we shall see below. This is a feature we may call characteristic of L.

The question to ask here is wether /c/ is the only cors of /q/ by AC? Indeed it is not, stops generally and /g/ in particular takes the place of /q/ when not in initial position in OE and also in L. We may say however that /c/ is its nearest cors or the most favoured in L and OE.

Ex : CA [fælq], OE fealg (arc. cricumference) CA (baq) OE bug L glabea (clod) CA [qoƏbarah].

In some Arabic dialects (the dialect of Upper Egypt for example) /q/ is systematically replaced by /g/ in all words.

8.8 Cors of /q/ by CC :

The next point to consider is that if L uses /h/ sparingly, is there another cors for /q/ by CC in L. We find the main cors by CC for /q/ in L are Vl. Like /h/ Vl are soft, weak sounds and are preferred in L as cors to /q/ by CC. There are only a few such cors however (about 2%). Such cors is found in words like CA [qollah] L olla, CA [qahwæh], L aqwa (water, liquid) CA [qa:li] L oleum (oil, particularly olive oil in L, in CA anything one uses to fry).

This small number of words in L which have a Vl as the CC of /q/ suggests that they must have entered the language through some related

language, either an Arabic or IE tongue. oleum has entered it through Greek; and we know that some old Arabic tongues replace /q/ by a Vl stop. The difference between a Vl stop and a simple Vl is not great and we have seen this cors in L (5.16).

8.9 Cors of /q/ in L and Cairene Arabic :

If we compare L with Cairene Arabic (the Arabic of the inhabitants of Cairo) we find that in Cairene Arabic /q/ is systematically replaced by a Vl, or more accurately the Vl that it dominates takes its place, if such a Vl exists, and it is changed to a Vl, if it occurs in a cluster. An Egyptian never utters back /q/ unless he is speaking CA. Here the change of /q/ to a Vl is an overall rule of the language. It is not in a few words but in all the words which contain /q/ in CA.

If we examine the words : L cella (room, cell) L olla (jar), their CA cognates are [qilalah] and [qollah] respectively. They both come from the same RV [qal'la] which is found in L together with the pref (a) as cælo, CA [aqala] (to raise above the ground, to raise in relief, hence sky in L and clouds in CA). All the words from this RV begin with /c/ in L except olla. This form must be considered irregular and must have entered the language through some related language. (CF with Cairene Arabic [ol'lah] and Upper Egypt Arabic [gol'lah].

8.10 /h/ in Latin :

Although /h/ is a sound that is often deleted or replaced in L one must not exclude the possibilty of finding it as a correspondent of /q/ in this language so long as it is the natural correspondent of /q/ (one must take into account the possibility of loan words from related dialects) Does such a cors exist in L?

It is rare, but it does exist in the word habilis whose CA cog is [qa:bel] (able, capable).

8.11 Cors of /q/ in OE :

Similarly one should expect to find some of the cors of /q/ taking its place in OE. Since the cors of /q/ are sometimes the same as those of /c/ or /g/ which are the nearest sounds to it, one should not exclude the possibility of meeting their cors also.

In the old CA alphabet /g/ is placed beside /H/ as its cors by CC. Clearly the two sounds are related, but what is their relationship in OE? That is, when do they take each others places and why?

In order to understand the cause of this cors one has to go way back to CA. In CA /c q g h H/ do not take each other's places because in CA there is a fifth level of significance, the level of SS and on this level each phoneme has its significance. Thus the difference in the semantic content of the two words [dæragæ] and [dæracæ] is that the first means to go a step or degree up and the second means to go a step or degree down. Phonetically the difference between the two verbs above is the difference between /g/ and /c/, because in the SS of the language /c/ means low down while its contrast /q/ means high up, but /g/ is neither very high up or very low down that denotes one step, one degree up and no more, hence the difference. Words beginning with /q/ like [qobatu] (dome Fr cupole) denote high up in comparison with /c/ and rather higher than /g/.

Let us now take a word in CA where /c/ takes the place of /h/ in the OE cognate form. That is let us compare CA [wæ:hi] and OE wāc (weak, of little stength, little power to resist).

Why has the original /h/ been replaced by /c/ in OE ? This adj contains two consonants. One is the semi-Vl /w/ a weak sound whose significance in the SS of the language is merely augmentation of whatever quality the consonants it appears with possess, in other words it is an intesifier having no particular semantic content of its own (like the word 'very' in Mod Eng), alone it is colourless. When it appears together with /h/ which is the weakest sound in the SS of CA, it means augmentation of this quality. The RV [wæhæ:] means to grow weak, lifeless, desintegrate, degenerate. The two consonants are therefore two weak sounds placed together for the express purpose of signifying extreme weakness. They literally mean weakness and its continuation or augmentation in the SS of the laguage. (/w/ which is pursing and then widening lips gives this symbolic movement of increase or augmentation).

In OE this symbolic level has been removed. The language is no longer governed by its significance but by phonetic rules. Therefore if a word contains two weak sounds one of them is counterbalanced by a strong one.

Now let us see if the corollarly of this hypothesis holds true, that is, if when two strong sounds are found together in OE one is softened. Such indeed is the case in the forms below :

Ex : Dohtor Ger tochter, CA [oxtun]
OE riht Ger rischt CA [ruŝd]
OE agan, ahte (I own) and ahsian for acsian

Where a strong sound like /x/ is followed by a stop, it is reduced to /h/ in OE, but when /x/ occurs before a Vl, a soft sound. it is more often changed to /c/ as in CA /xun/ OE cin (chink).

The same is true of /g/ and that is the reason it appears as /h/ in final position but is resumed when followed by a Vl. that is a weak sound. Ex : beah, beages (ring)(3).

8.12 Counterbalancing :

Counterbalancing of strong vs weak sounds is not peculiar to OE but may be found in other languages where the SS level is no longer operative for when this level is removed phonetic considerations begin to govern language. If we compare.

Mod Eng	CA	L	Greek
contusion, bruise	[cædamah]	contund-ere	oedema

The CA word is governed by the rules of SS of the language, where each sound has its significance, the L word has mitigated the effect of the two stops following each other by placing two soft nasals in between, (whereas in CA it was meant to be so to symbolize the effect of rough deep reaching contact) while in Gr. the initial /c/ has been deleted to avoid the effect of two stops. This V in L is analysed as the pref con+ tundere, whereas in CA the RV is (c+d+m). This kind of interpretation one meets often in L and in a few cases in OE. The reason is that in L many sounds have been lost and therefore the phonetic range of the language has become more limited and less able to hold the semantic content. The result was many prefixes and many mergers as well as cases as the above.

In the cors above we may observe the same tendencies we observed in L and in Gr in the previous example above (8.8) L retains the stop but softens the effect by other means, while Gr deletes the stop and replaces it by the Vl after it.

8.13 The cors of CA /H/ in L and OE :

Let us turn to another CA phoneme and examine its correspondences. The phoneme /H/. It is a gutteral fricative which has a sharp rustling sound. In the SS of the language it is the symbol of the sharp, keen, acid, caustic, trenchant or a limit, a thin demarcation, like edge of sword, hence boundary.

In the CA alphabet it is placed with /g x/. They form a trio. /x/ is its cors by AC /g/ is its cors by CC. In OE both /H/ and its cors /h/ are represented by the OE rune hægl, whose CA cog is [hæyl]. The RV is [hæ:la]. The medial diphthong has been introduced in the N by means of the infix /y/ in accord with the rules for 2 syl verbs in CA. In OE it has been replaced by /g/ together with other such forms as we have shown in Chap V. The V means to fall upon in great numbers, hence to overwhelm, to awe. From this same V comes CA [mæhuwl] OE mickel, OHG mihhil. (awesome, hence very great) it is a pref+ V).

As the percentages given for /h/ in OE in (8.6) show /H/ is used rather often in OE. It appears in words like CA/ aHad/ OE had (person), CA /Hæm'mæ:lah/ OE hamela (carrier) CA /Hæ:fah/ OE hafen. (haven, edge or limit in CA) (we shall see when dealing with FC why /H/ appears often in initial position in OE).

In L /H/ does not exist but its nearest cors/h/ does . It is used infrequently however and is often deleted or changed to other fricatives as we shall see in due course. /H/ is represented, by /h/ in L as in the examples below.

CA [Hæmæ°] L humus (clay), CA [Has'sadah] L hasta (scyth, weapon) L harpago, CA [Harbah] a spear, harpoon.

Does the cors of /H/ by AC given in the CA alphabet appear in OE? In OE/x/ does not exist, so that words containing it in CA appear containing /h/ in OE.

This cors is rather infrequent but it exists.

Ex : [xos] but OE hus (house) CA [xašen] OE has (hoarse)

If the cors of /H/ by AC can be found in OE, does the cors by CC also exist? Again we do find such cors, but not very frequently in words like CA [Hæ:d] OE găd (sharp weapon).

In L we find mainly the cors of /H/ by CC, that is /g/ or /c/ in words like CA [HaSā:] L glarea OE hassuc. /H/ also is sometimes replaced in L by /g/ particularly in final position in words like.

CA [Hurrah] L virgo, (virgin, freewoman) CA [Harbah] L harpago (harpoon).

8.14 The cors of /H/ by CC :

/H/ is a gutteral sound pronounced far back in the throat, while /w/ is a bilabial which has a front point of articulation relative to /H/. It is its antithesis or CC. Does such cors exist in actual fact? Indeed it does in both L and OE, in a substantial number of words.

Ex :

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA
man	wer	vir	[hur] (cf,OHG her)
woman	-	virgo	[Hur'rah]
wicked	wicca	-	[Hæ:qed]
bovine	-	bovinus	[bahiym]
wrong	wrong	gravis	[Harag]
throw	ρ rawan	trahō	[TaraHa]

Just as /w/ takes the place of /H/ by CC, so can this sound and its cors /h/ takes its place by the same means. The relationship is reciprocal.

Ex : CA [weraθætu] L hereditas (heredity)

CA [wæθni] OE heaðen (heathen)

8.15 Rule of NC :

In the cors above we have seen how sounds which have affinitive or contrastive connections can take each others place. Supposing we wish to formulate a rule of thumb that would help us in the search for cognate forms. How do we express the phenomenon above?

Rule of NC: X and Y are two phonemes. If X can take the place of Y in certian environments, Y can take the place of X in certain environments.

This rule is rather vague, and it was meant to be so. Much research has to be done before we can tell exactly what is the range and

environment of each cors, in a particular language. Why do we restrict the rule to certain environments, if it is the nature of sound? Because normally there should be AIC, when we find AC or CC (or any of the cors discussed in the succeeding chapter) it denotes that change has taken place, and change is always due to disturbance.

The point to keep in mind is that so long as two phonemes have NC with each other, one should expect to come across cors between them in related languages under certain circumstances. Th choice of phoneme, the frequency of its occurence in a particular language depends on the phonetic rules of this particular langauge. In other words the possibility always exits because of the natural potentials of sound. Whether it is made use of or not depends on the phonetic rules each language has evolved.

8.16 Intermediate correspondence (Inc) :

Sometimes in actual practice we come across cases of cors of phonemes which do not have NC between them. How can one account for such cors? Let us compare the cognate forms below. The word [mæhuwl] whose derivation was given above.

OHG	OE	CA
mihhil	mickel	[mæhuwl]

The cors between the OHG and the CA word is the following /m/:/m/ by AlC, /h/:/h/ by ALC /h/:/w/ by CC, /l/:/l/ by ALC.

Now if we examine the OE word, we find no direct cors between CA /w/ and OE /c/ (Germanic K is another version of OE c) so that to account for this cors we have to change /w/ to /h/ by CC, then both /hh/ to /kk/ by CC. In another words we have to use the cors of the OHG word as an intermediate level to explain the relationship or cors of /w/ to /c/. It is always helpful when a cors is not a direct one to compare with more than one related language in order to find clues to the causes of its existence. It is possible, indeed probable . that the OE word above has submitted to two phonetic rules, the first changing /w/ to /h/ and the second changing /hh/ to /cc/.

In the cors of OE above we notice the same tendency we have noticed earlier (8.11), to counterbalance a weak by a strong sound. This word in CA and in OHG is made completely of semi-Vls, three of which /h w l/

are considered weak sounds in the SS of the language. It is not surprising, therefore that OE has replaced two of the four semi-VI by two stops.

8.17 Phonetic cycle :

After examining numerous cases of NC, we are in a position to tell how Mod Eng has been able to retrive /y/ in certain words after OE has changed it to /g/. This was possible because of the natural relationship of /y/ to /g/ by CC. Similarly German has been able to retrive the original /f/ in some words after it was changed to /p/ because of the AC between the two sounds.

While in Mod Fr /l/ has been replaced by a long Vl, in certain words. This /l/ a long Vl in CA was changed to /l/ in L and then to along Vl again in Mod Fr.

Retrival of these sounds would not have been possible if it were not for the innate potentials of sound itself. Much research needs to be made on this phenomenon, on the range, the potentials and the duration of such cycles.

It is truly amazing that after a period of nearly ten thousand years a word should be able to retrive a sound it had lost.

8.18 The Cors of / ɜ/ :

One of the sounds that are difficult to pronounce and difficult to trace as cors is /ɜ/. It is a pharyngal, nazalised resonant, it is a voiced semi-Vl. Some old grammarians (like Ibn Ahmad) believe it to be the beginning of the alphabet, possibly the first sound ever uttered. It is an inchoate sound that has affinities with many others. Among the Arab tribes some have replaced it by /n/ and some have replaced /n/ by it. Some have replaced it by /H/ and some by Vls. /n H a / are its cors by AC. What are its cors by CC? Its cors by CC are the same cors of Vl and /H/ by CC, that is stops generally. Since /ɜ/ is a pharyngal pronounced far back, bilabials, dental and alveolar stops are its natural antithesis, but we do find, in certain environments /g/ also /c/ take its place. Being an inchoate sound /ɜ/ is highly susceptible to its environment.

In the CA alphabet /ɜ/ has a twin of the same shape. It is /R/ (rather like Fr. r only pronounced further back). /R/ is a voiced, velar fricative.

The interesting point is that in both L and OE we find that /R/ is sometimes given the same cors that /ɜ/ is given, sometimes by Inc and also because /R/ shares some of the features of /ɜ/. (Nazalized, far back).

8.19 Cors / ɜ / : /a/ :

The first cors for (ɜ) in IE languages is Vl. Two Vl occur together. The first is usually /ɜ/, the second is the Vl that it dominates.

Ex : [ɜoqa:b] (eagle), CA [ɜæm] OE eam (uncle)]
CA [ɜæ:da] OE eode (to return) OF aage CA [ɜomr] (age)

Later one of these Vl was removed and the second Vl was retained to take the place of both /ɜ/ and the Vl dominated.

Ex : CA [ɜæb'ba] ON ebba (ebb, the RV means to fill up)
CA [ɜædi] ON eddi (eddy) (RV means to pass over, upon)
CA [ɜætiyq] L antiqus, CA [ɜæ:m] L anns (a year)
CA [ɜarabi] Mod Eng Arabic, CA [ɜomar] Mod Eng Omar.

We notice that in all the words above /ɜ/ occurs in initial position. What are the cors of /ɜ/ when it occurs in medial position?

8.20 The cors of / ɜ/: /r/ :

In medial position /ɜ/ is very much influenced by its environment, that is the consonant that precedes and that which succeeds it. It can occur as a Vl, as in initial position, but most of the time it occurs as a stop or a semi. Vl/r n l/, depending on the environment it is found in.

Ex : CA [roɜb] L terror (terror)

In this word /ɜ/ is interpreted as /r/ by EC (discussed in the next chapter) while /b/ is intepreted as /t/, and brought to initial postion. (in the CA alphabet /b t/ are found as a pair /ɜ/ has acclimatized itself to two conditions in this word. The L preference for the use of /r/ and the L tendency to delete stops or replace them by semi-Vl if there is more than one in the CA word. (cf L silentum, CA [sæ:cet].

In the examples below /ɜ/ appears as /r/ in the L and OE words :

Ex : L serpens CA [θuɜbæ:n] (here also it has become /r/ because of the presence of another stop in this word. (it means snake) OE teorian (to tire) CA sup [tæɜæbæn] In this OE inf the final stop has been deleted.

8.21 / ɜ/ as a stop :

If we compare the L and OE words below :

L ludō, ludere OE plegan CA [læɜiba] [leɜban]

The above is the V to play. The difference in pat is that OE has that of the CA sup while L has the pat of the CA unmarked form. The second difference in sounds is that L has interpreted /ɜ/ as /d/, then deleted the final /b/ to introduce the infinitive ending -re. A process we have previously discussed, while OE has interpreted /ɜ/ as /g/ then brought /b/ as/p/ to initial position, a process we shall meet again in OE when discussing the clustering rules of OE. In other words it is a case of tri cors. /d/ :/ɜ/ : /g/ Similarly /ɜ/ is interpreted as a stop in the forms below :

L grape (grapes) CA [ɜenæb] here /ɜ/ is immediately followed by /r/ so it had to become a stop by dissimilation.

OE beocgan CA [bayɜan] In this sup OE has changed /ɜ/ to /c/ and /y/ to /g/ by CC.

OE lyftan (to lift) CA [læfɜan) OE has changed /ɜ/ to /t/ by CC.

8.22 The cors of / ɜ/ : /b/ :

In OE /ɜ/ is often interpreted as the stop /b/, particularly if there is an /r/ in the same word. /r/ as sound is very close to /R/ the twin of /ɜ/ so that this cors may be looked upon as an attempt at dissimilation.

Ex: OE bare, CA [ɜæri] OE broad, CA [ɜariyd] OE bān, CA [ɜaðm]
OE board, CA [ɜarD] OE bride, CA [ɜarous].

Sometimes, though not so often, possibly by analogy, /϶/ is interpreted as /b/ even when there is no /r/ in the word. This may be due to the existence of /d/ which is one of the cors of /϶/ as we have shown above.

Ex : bitan CA [϶æD'Da] (to bite), OE beado, CA [dæ϶a] (pray, plead) The word has undergone metatheisis in OE bringing /b/ to initial position.

If we look at the forms below :

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA
1. bow	boga	arcus	/϶awag//϶arag/
2. broad	broad	largus	/϶ariyD/
3. bare, bareland	bare	area	/϶æri/, /϶æreyah/
4. neck	hnecca	Fr.nuque	/϶onog/

In one there are two CA words which are minimal pairs in CA but look very different in L and OE because of the two different interpretaions of /϶/ as /b/ in OE and as /a/ in L. In 2 we have the same adj in the three languages looking quiet different because OE has interpreted /϶/ as /b/ and L has interpreted it as /1/ and the final strong /D/ as /g/. This cors of L is discussed in the next chapter, we give it here only to show how widely different the cors of /϶/ can be 3. In CA the RV is [϶æra:] (to become bare) from this V come all the forms of no 3, (area) means a piece of bare land in CA. The difference is the same as that of no 1, it is a case of tri cors. In 4 OE has interpreted /϶/ has /h/ a cors that is not very frequent, but that exists in OE as well as some old Arabic tongues. Whereas in Fr this /϶/ was probably interpreted as a Vl then deleted altogether, a case that is by no means rare.

While we cannot give a detailed account of the cors of /϶/ here we hope the few examples we have given have demonstrated that it is a highly versatile sound, and since it is used very often in CA, it is one of the main causes of difference between L and OE. The examples we have given above are only a fraction of a much larger corpus.

8.23 Deletion of / ɜ/ :

One must not exclude deletion from the possiblities of the shapes that words may take where /ɜ/ is concerned. Sometimes, rather frequently the whole syl containing /ɜ/ is deleted.

Ex : CA [roqɜah] OE rag (rag), CA [ɜatam] OE dim (darkness, faint light) L bellus, CA [badiyɜ] (lovely, beautiful).

The truth is /ɜ/ is responsible for many of the differences found between one IE language and another. It is a sound used rather frequently in CA for reasons given in Chap XV, and in consequence its absence in IE languages has been the cause of many changes, some of which are given above, while others will be discussed when the clustering rules of L and OE are being examined.

8.24 The cors of /R/ :

The phoneme /R/ the twin of /ɜ/ has got the following cors /a g w/. These are the main cors of /R/ in L and OE but one should not exclude, in a few cases, some more of the cors of /ɜ/ through Inc as well as other kinds of cors to be discussed in the due cors.

EX: [Ra:r] OE war (war), CA [Rasælæh] OE wasian, L lavare
CA [Rædæra] L vadere, (to go, go away) CA [Ragæri]
L vagare(vagrant, and gypsy in CA)

Ex: 1. CA [Rorour] L error (astray, wrong, error).
2. CA [Razw] OE rād (raid)
3. CA [raRay] L garroulous (chattering, talking much)
4. CA [laRw] L logos (unreliable talk, foolish talk) taken from Gr.

1. In 1 L has interpreted /R/ as Vl, as /ɜ/ often is.
2. In 2 OE has interpreted /R/ as /r/ by AC.
3. In 3 the word has undergone metathesis to bring /R/ to initial position after interpreting it as /g/.
4. In 4 the final /w/ is interpreted as a Vl / a cors we have met when dealing with Vls. and /ɜ/: /g/.

If we compare:
CA /Rel/ L bil-us OE gealle (bile, gall)

The difference in the L and OE forms is due to the different interpretations of /R/. It is a case of tri cors /b/ : /R/ :/ g/ :

Notes :

1. The word allophone is used here in a rather special sense, not in the accepted one. It is used in the sense that these phonemes were the same at some remote period of history. For the reason why we do not maintain they are the same although they have the same phonetic features see 4.2.

2. Grimm's theory would not be valid in such comparisons, since it does not take into account the existence of /q/, and is not based on the facts that we know about language today.

3. The sounds that we accept as correspondents or having NC are accepted in some languages as allophones. In fact in L itself /g/ amd /c/ may be considered so in words like rex. regis. grex gregis. In OE /g h c/ take each others place as we have shown above. The reason we do not accept them as allophones is that in CA they are not, and in the ancestor of L and OE they were not. These are new developments in these languages and the difference in the phonetic features of these sounds have to be taken into account in order that these developments may be traced and understood, as in the case of weak vs strong sounds in OE, shown above.

4. It is rather interesting to observe how different babies pronounce /ɜ/ when they first start to speak. Most one or two year olds pronounce it as /a/, but some pronounce it as a fricative.

   A twelve year old who speaks fairly good Arabic, but who lives in the U.S.A. pronounced the name of his father's nurse as [dalida] when it is [ɜædiylah], the feminine of OE ædel. He has given the word EC. The old woman smiled and said that this was progress, his father as a baby used to call her [iyla]. He deleted the whole first part which contained /ɜ/.

Most foreigners today would pronounce /ɜ/ as /a/. but the present writer has come across a newspaper article by an American journalist who writes /al mustaDɜafiyn/ (the downtrodden) as al mustazafin. He has merged the two sounds /D/ and /g/ to give /z/. The ingenius /z/ was produced possibly by assimilation to the fricative after it. Incidentally this gentleman is of Arab extraction.

CHAPTER IX

Favourite Correspondence

9.1 FC :

In the preceding chapter we saw how related sounds took each others place when change or disturbance occurs. In this chapter and the next we shall deal with two kinds of correspondence which do not depend entirely upon the innate properties of sound but on other factors as well.

1. Favourite correspondence (FC)
2. Echoic correspondence (EC)

As its name suggests favorite cors occurs when a sound becomes a favourite in a particular language, while Echoic Cors: occurs when this favourite, or any congenital sound, takes the place of another, so that the same sound is repeated in the same word, when originally there were two different phonemes. When favourites and EC begin to appear in a language this denotes that the underlying SS has been destroyed and superseded by phonetic rules which do not depend on the symbolic significance of each sound. In CA there are no favorites. Each sound is used whenever the semantic content has need of it, and according to its significance in the SS of the language. Therefore favourites among phonemes denotes that the SS of the language has become completely obsolete. From the number of consonants lost to both L and OE we know this to be the case in both languages. While NC appears to readjust a word after disturbance, FC occurs under a variety of circumstances and among sounds which may or may not be related. A favorite, as we shall see, can sweep all before it. It can occur without being triggered by change or disturbance, but simply by preference.

1. Among favourite sounds we have to distinguish first early favourites that are found in both L and OE. We may assume that some of these began as favourites long before the Germanic and Romance languages separated, while others are due to L influence on Germanic languages.

2. Favourites in OE alone, and in L alone. These must have taken place after the L and OE (Germanic languages) had become separate and distinctly different. When dealing with cases of FC one must always ask the question whether this replacement is obligatory, that

is due to loss of some feature of the language, or it is due to the preference of one sound to another, even though both exist in the language. For a favourite may take the place of both sounds that exist and sounds that do no exist in the language.

9.2 Degress of Acceptability :

Comparison of thousands of forms has revealed that each phoneme has got a position and a status in each language, in other words a degree of acceptability. Phonemes do not hold the same position. There is a gradation of acceptability, beginning with the unacceptable and grading up to the most acceptable or favourite.

Let us assume that the phoneme C is not found in language X, but is found in other languages of the same origin. Then we can say that the acceptability of C in X is ø. Supposing C is a phoneme that has entered the language through another language but has gained no ground in it, that is, it is confined to the loan words it has entered the language with. Its acceptability is marginal and far below the norm. If we consider the norm 1, then let us consider its acceptability as 0.1, that is only one degree above zero. (an example of this would be /z/ in L. It has entered the language through Gr but is confined to the words it has entered with.) If the phoneme C is found in the language X, but is often replaced by other sounds, so that it is used only about one third of its usage in cognate languages, its acceptability is not complete, and we can give it only a grading of 0.3 (an example of this is /h/ in L. It exists but is used very sparingly most of the time it is replaced by /s f c/. We notice that these sounds have NC with it, and that they are not one but several, so that we can infer that it is /h/ itself that is unacceptable and not a new sound that has become a favourite and has swept it away).

Supposing the phoneme C in the language X occurs in accord with its rate of occurence on the level of SS (the level we can check in CA) then it has the acceptability of the norm. Its grading is 1. If this phoneme C begins to take the place of other phonemes found in the language, and if it begins to be removed to initial position, then we assume that it is becoming a favourite. Its grading depends on how far it takes the place of other sounds. If it takes the place of sounds with which it has NC only, it is a favourite, but if it begins to take the place of all sounds, those with which it has NC and those with which it has no NC, and to be removed to initial position, the most conspicuous

place in a word it, then it has become the favourite. We shall see that in L /p/ has attained this position. (for actual percentages see chap. XV).

The gradations we have given above are only a casual and sketchy estimate of the actual situation, but we hope the examples given in this chapter and the actual percentages given in chapter XV will help the reader gain insight into the different gradations of phonemes in L and OE.

This phenomenon raises many questions that have yet to be answered, and much research has to be done on the subject, for we do not know what factors make a phoneme a favourite and what factors cause it to be deleted from the language or cause it to trail on, even when it is used seldom.

9.3 L in L and OE :

The phoneme /1/ may be considered as having AIC in L, OE and CA. It is a voiced lateral, flap. It occurs in initial, medial and final position in the three languages.

Ex : CA [læyen] L lenis (soft, flexible), CA [sælwæ'h] L solacium [solace]
CA [aqalae] L caelo (to raise above, to raise in relief)
CA [laTiyf] OE leóf, (sweet, pleasant) CA (xalq) OE folc (people)
CA [saylan] OE seglan (to sail, great waters in CA)

The OE rune which represents this sound is found in a poem. The line is lagu by*p* leodum. It has been interpreted as "waters for wanderes", but we shall have to discuss this interpretation further after observing how /1/ is used in L and OE.

Possibly quite early, for the tendency exists in both L and OE, /l/ has become a favourite and got removed to initial position in L and OE. One has to distinguish between /1/ as a consonant, as it is used in CA, and /1/ which replaces a CA long Vl in L and OE, and which , interestingly, we do not find, except rarely, removed to initial position, but in medial or final position, or as part of a cluster. Consonantal/1/ is often removed to initial position, even when it replaces another semi-V1, like /ɜ/ or /m/ but the /1/ which replaces a long Vl, we come seldom across in initial position. It is possible that in early times it was something between /1/ and a long Vl, so that the clustering rules of the language excluded it from initial position.

OE Ex : CA [dael 'la] OE laedan (to lead) CA [Hæmæl] OE lamb (lamb).

CA [Rasaela] OE lafian (to wash) L lavō.

In some OE words /l/ is brought to initial position by deletion of the initial syl.

Ex : CA [saelafun] OE lǽn (loan), CA /qalyl/ OE lytle (little)
CA (xa:les) OE lǽs, CA [walafa] OE lufian, (to love)
CA [walaed] OE wald Sct lad (son of, boy)
CA /ɜazaemae/ OE latin (to invite) /ɜ/:/1/

L Ex : CA [daem ɜæh] OL dacrima, mod L lacrima /d/:/1/
CA [maenæh] Proto-Ger maenon*, OE mona, L luna /m/:/l/
CA [watan] L latin (motherland, homeland) /w/:/1/

9.4 The OE rune Lagu :

Lagu by*p* leaodum 'water for wanderers'. The word lagu is interpreted as water or sea in OE. In CA we find it together with its RV [lag'ga] which means to wade in deep water. The [lug] and [lugæh] mean the deepest part, the great depth. It is used in old texts very often in connection with the sea, it means turbulent or brimful sea. The word is found in L as lacus. It means lake, which denotes depth, but not quite the great depth that is depicted in CA, which depends on the SS of the language. The significance of the GS in this V denotes depth over depth, while /g/ as symbol stands for gathering, accumulation of waters over waters. This interperetation contigent on the SS of the language is how the word is found and used in CA.

Leódum is the PL. of leód (man). The word in CA is [ragul]. It has undergone both deletion and metathesis. The RV is [ragæla]. From this RV comes also proto-Ger legr*. Which means leg. CA [regl]. It has undergone metathesis. From this we can perceive that the removal of /l/ to initial position has started quite early, and that it is found in both L and OE, denoting that it must have started before the separation of those two branches. The word leód, CA [ragul] means man, prince in OE. In CA it means man also, but a man who has reached the height of his powers. Full manhood as opposed to boyhood or youth. The V means growth or extention in CA as it does in OE. When it is used for the sun, it implies that it has reached the highest point, or its full effect.

Now that we have the exact meaning of both lagu and leodum (for change of final /g/ to /d/ in this word see 18.4) it would be more accurate to interpret this line of poetry as: depth for the men.

It implies that deep waters (whether in a physical or figurative sense) are not for youth but for men of courage initiative, virility and strength. All those meanings are found in the word in CA.

This interpretation gives the poem the beauty and significance that are its due and makes it recapture the spirit of the North men and the Nordic seas.

We have taken up this old runic line to illustrate a point. A word is not a dead tool; it is a living entity. It may be very old and have origins that extend far back into immemorial time. When interpreting an old line one has to go as far back as he is able to, to the very roots of each expression in order to understand how it originated. To comprehend the associations, connotations implications, reflections and refractions of each word. By so doing one may perceive the ancient poet's vision, catch a glimpse of his age, its atmosphere, its occupations, worries beliefs. It will in turn trace for us moments long forgotten and make us comprehend what we had felt only dimly, hesitantly.

9.5 F in L and OE :

CA /f/ is a voiceless labio-dental fricative. It may be considered an allophone of both L and OE /f/. It is found in cognate forms in initial, medial and final position in CA and OE.

OE far*op* Ca [faras] (seahorse in OE, horse in CA)
nafela, [naefelah] (navel in OE, what is in excess in CA)
half [neSf] (half)
L lumen CA [lae :meɜ] (light in L, bright in CA)
L defendo CA [daefaeɜa] (to defend, ward off).
while this V is interpreted as de+ fendo, in CA the RV is (d + f + ɜ)

As the above forms denote it is not difficult to find cognate forms having /f/ in initial position in the three languages, and in medial or final position in OE and CA. But the L form having /f/ in medial position is rare (except for V+pref) and that having /f/ in final position is even more so. In fact it could be non-existent.

Among OE runes the word for /f/ is feoh. In OE it means cattle, wealth, riches. In CA the sig. Is [fiye'] the Pl, the cog of the word above is [foyue']. Quite possible the OE and the CA word were pronouced rather close. The difference /y /:/o / is partly due to the different manner of writing. In CA it means cattle, wealth easily gained, or given as gift, as booty in war, as extra benefit. The shade of tree is called [fayae'n] because it is addition to its fruit.

It appears that /f/ had at some early date become a favourite in both L and OE. In a few forms one can perceive the influence of L on OE, but in most cases the forms concerned are not the same. If we compare the statistic samples below :

	F	H	Other Fricatives
L	48%	25%	27%
OE	67%	9%	24%

The above percentages show that while two thirds of all words beginning with /f/ in OE have cognate forms which begin with /f/ in CA, in L only 48% originally began with /f/, the rest have had other fricatives, or /f/ in medial or final postion. It was removed to initial position through metathesis. This difference is what one should expect, since the occurence of /f/ in L in medial or final position is rare. Then in OE the following, fricatives have not been lost /θ ∂ H/ while in L they no longer exist. This accounts for the substantial percentage of words beginning with /H/ or /h/ or having them in medial position which have been changed to /f/ then removed to initial position in L when they are not found there already.

Mod Eng	L	CA
1. court, precincts	forum	[Haram]
2. fate, luck	fors	[Haz]
3. flame	flamma	[læhæb]
4. end, conclusion	finalis	[nehayah]
5. easy	facilis	[sæhl]

In no and 2 /H / has been replaced by /f/ in L, and in no. 3-5 it has been removed to initial position after being changed to /f/.

The same tendency appears in OE. In OE /f/ replaces other fricatives which exist in the language and plays an important role. Such cors in OE suggests the influence of other Germanic tongues, where the tendency prevails and in some cases the influence of L.

If we compare:

Mod Eng	L	OE	CA	CA	L & OE
female	femina	femne	[unθah]	/θ/:	/f/
end	finalis	finta	[nehaeyah]	/h/:	/f/

In the above forms the OE word is rather close to the L one and has undergone the same process shown above. There is a difference in the semantic content; for while **finalis** in L means end as the cog form does in CA, in OE it means tail. We very often come across a general or abstract term reduced to a particular or concrete thing.

The word for tail in OE is **taegl**, whose CA cog is [ðæyl]. Such changes in old languages one does come across, occasionally This same word which means tail in OE and CA is found in Gr as TЭλOS, and in Gr it has come to mean "end". It has undergone the opposite process of making the concrete abstract and general.

If we examine the cognate forms below :

Mod Eng	OE	CA
Feud, revenge	faeh*p*	[θae'r]
ox	feorr	[θawr]
embrace	faðm	[HoDn]
flesh	flaesc	[læHmah]
people	folc	[xalç]

The forms above do not come from L and suggest the inflcunce of another Germantic tongue.

9.6 (*p*) in OE :

According to the statistic sample we have taken only 8% of words beginning with /f/ had originally /θ/ in OE. Furthermore a statistic sample taken from the phoneme/θ/ shows that 50% of the words which

begin with /θ/ in OE originally had /s/ or /S/ as initial consonant. Only 20% originally began with /θ/ and 30% began by other fricatives. There are two tendencies then in OE, a minor tendency, or a tendency concerning a small group of words, where /θ/ is changed to /f/, and a tendency concerning a much larger group of words, half the words beginning with /θ/ in OE which originally had /s/, /S/. The major group we assume to be the innate tendency in OE, while the minor group suggests strongly the influence of another Germanic tongue. /θ/ is a favourite in OE, but the language has been influenced by other currents as well.

Let us examine some of these forms beginning with /θ/

Mod Eng	OE	L	Rom	CA
head, master	*peóden*	senator	seignor	[sayed-un]

The cognate forms above come from the RV [sae: dae] in CA. It means to be master of, to dominate, to be head, chief, ruler. The difference between the CA and the OE form is due to the following cors /s/: /q/, /y/: /o:/ and deletion of one VL. In OE /y/ may be written /o/ but pronounced /y/. The difference between the CA and the L form is due to the cors /d/: /t/ and metathesis of /n/ to medial position (12.5). The cors of the Rom form is /y/:/g/, deletion of /d/ and a new inflectional ending as that of L.

From the RV [sae:dae] comes the V [sawaeda] to make black, it is used figuratively for the great bulk of anything, land, plants or people. The N in CA is [sawae:d] and it means the majority of the people, or the common people. It is found in OE as **peoð** here the cors is /w/:/o/. The consonants have the same cors as above, but it is the semi-Vl that serve to mask the difference between the word derived directly from the RV and that derived from its derivative. From this same derived V comes OE **sweart** and CA [aswaed] (swarthy) which means dark, black. Here /w/ appears clearly as a semi- V1. Manner of writing together with difference in source as we have previously noted can mask resemblances.

If we compare the sup of the V [sæqafa] which is [saeqfan] with the OE inf **p acian** (to give a roof in both languages) and the word roof in both languages [saqf] in CA and **p aca** in OE we find the difference is due to the change of /s/ to *p* and deletion of the final fricative, in OE.

Comparison of CA [Saf'faeqa] whose sup is [Safqan] and OE þ accian (to clap) shows the tendency in OE, that is the change of /S/ to θ and deletion of the fricative /f/. The OE inf here has a GS because the RV has a GS, even though the CA sup does not. In CA there is the V [sae: Hae] and the V derived from it [saewaehae]. The RV is intransitive and it means to melt. The derived V is transitive and it means to make melt. It is this derived V that we find in OE as þ awian having the pat of the CA sup [saewHan]. In the OE inf/H/ has been deleted. This V also, like the above, has undergone the change of /s/ to θ and deletion of one of the three consonants of the RV.

From the V [saen 'na] comes CA [saen 'natu] stone for cutting and [sun'natu] cutom, usage, law. In OE we find both words, the first is stan (stone) which has undegone deletion of one /n/ and metathesis of final /t/ to form a cluster with the initial /s/. The second is OE þ eaw. It has the same meaning as in CA but it has undergone the change of /s/ to /θ/ and the cors of /h/:/w/ by CC. The difference between the correspondences of the two words and the morphological rules they have undergone suggest, as in the case of þ eod and sweart above, that each comes from a different source. Even though they come ultimately from the same RV. In OE one comes rather often upon such cases. (for the change of /t/ in (sun'naetu) to (sun'næh) as it is found in the OE form see 12.1).

9.7 S in L and OE :

There are two voiceless sibilants in CA, /s/ and /S/. The difference between them is that the first is pronouced to the front, while the second is palatalized. The nearest thing to them in Mod Eng would be a word like scene, CA [saenae:] and sound, CA [SawT]. Since /S/ shares the feature of palatalization with the other back consonants /T D/, it is sometimes replaced by them, and since they do not exist in L and OE by /t d/ or the nearest thing to them by Inc. (cf. OE tun Ger zaun CA [HeSn]).

Most of the time /S/ is replaced by /s/, such cors occurs in a few cases however.

In OE the rune for S means sun. Actually there is more than one word and they both mean sun.

OE	OE	CA	CA	L
sunna	sigel	[Šæms-un]	[Saqar]	sōl

The first word is the cog of the first word for sun in CA. The medial GS is due to the /s/ and the main stress preceding it in the CAword, a feature we shall dicuss in due course. The RV is [saemaesa]. It means to be fierce, strong.

The next OE word comes from the RV [Saqara] in CA and it means hot, strong sun. It cors is -/s/: /S/, /g/: /q/, /l/: /r/ all three are cases of AC.

L sōl comes from the same root as this second word. Like many L words the medial stop has been deleted and a long Vl has taken its place. cf with Mod Fr where a long V1 sometimes takes the place of L consonants. (G. Price. 1971).

The two sounds /s/ and /S/ have merged into one /s/ in OE and in L only the front /s/ remains.

A sample taken from the usage of /s/ in L and OE gives the following percentages :

	S	s	misc	metathesis
L	12%	52%	26%	10%
OE	10%	43%	32%	15%

In order to understand the changes that have taken place let us look at the ratio of usage of /s/ in CA. It is 2.6:6. In other words /s/ is used over more than twice as much as /S/. In L and in OE this ratio has become 1:4.3 in both languages. Clearly many more words where /S/ used to occur in initial position have been changed or dropped than those where /s/ occurs in initial position. This is a tendency we come across very often. Words where sounds that no longer exist in the language have a higher rate of disappearance than words which have sounds congenital to the language.

In L many of this 12% that belonged to /S/ have been changed to /s/ by AC. While in OE the words which originally had /S/ in initial position were distributed between /s/ and /θ/ as we have shown above. Then in words which contain a favorite sound in OE like /h/, the initial syl containing /S/ is deleted altogether and /h/ appears in initial position. (see below). This accounts for the higher percentage of the occurence of /s/ in L

than in OE. Actually we do find a strong tendency in both L and OE, but rather more in OE to bring /s/ to the front to form an initial cluster with other consonante.

Ex : from L :

similis	(like, similar)	CA [miθl)	/θ/:/s
spiritus	(spirit, breath)	CA [zafiyr]	/z/:/s/
scribō	(to write)	CA [cataebae]	/t/:/s/ by-inC
scalpō	(to scratch)	CA [xarbasa]	/x/ : /c/ /ʂ/ : /s/ /r/ : /l/

1. /θ/ has been changed to /s/ then brought to initial position.
2. /z/ has been changed to /s/ and clustered with /f/ after it was changed to */p/*
3. /t/ has been changed to /s/ in order to form a cluster with /c/.
4. The cors is the following /x/:/c/, /r/:/l/, /b/:/p/.

We find the same metathesis in OE and much more of this same trend in Mod Eng.

Ex :1. CA [Saraxæ] OE screaman (to scream)

2. CA [næsægae] OE spinnan (to spin)
3. CA [saeHala] OE slihtan (to smite, slay)
4. CA [zæHlaqa] OE slipan (to slip, slide, glide)
5. CA [caesulæ] OE slacian (slow, lazy)

1. In this example /x/ is clustered with between /s r/ after being changed to /c/.
2. A cluster is formed with /s g/ after the latter was changed to /p/. The change of a stop to /p/ if found in final position in the CA V is discussed below.
3. In this V a stop has been added to represent the main stress of the CA sup. /saeHlaen/. In CA it falls upon /H/. In OE /t/ appears immediately after it to mark this stress, (we shall discuss this further in due course).
4. In this V/q/:/p/ because it is found in final position and /H/ has been deleted.
5. This V has undergone metathisis only.

9.8 S in Mod Eng :

Now let us look at how some old CA forms appear in Mod Eng :

slap	[laTasa]	slam	[latama]	stick	[læ∂æqa]
squash	[sæHiqa]	sprinkle	[naθ'θara]	spread	[baSata]
sweep	[saeHæba]	smooth	[malis]	smile	[bæsæmæ]

Most of the V above have undergone metathesis to bring /s/ to initial position, partly because /s/ is a favourite, and partly because the general tendency in both L and OE (as well as Germanic languages) was for more compact form, so that /s/ which can form clusters more easily than other consonants due to the clustering rules of L and OE, which will be discussed in due course, was removed to initial position in order to achieve the desired form.

9.9 P in L :

The consonant /p/ a bilabial, voiceless stop, is a sound very much used in L. In fact it is used more than any other sound in the language. Its usage in comparison with that of /b/ its voiced cors. is in the ratio of 9:1. In L it is a master phoneme that is used to replace other phonemes in CA and OE, whether it has NC with them or not. It is the favourite.

Search in CA shows no trace of this favourite phoneme. On the level of SS, the basis of the language it does not exist, and there is not the least sign that it ever existed. On the phonemic level it does not exist, nor is there any sign to show that it could have existed at any previous stage in the language.

In OE /p/ is very sparingly used, in both initial and final position. In initial position it occurs in a few words taken mainly from L, in final position it occurs as a voiceless cors of /b/ or a mitigated cors of /q/ by CC. The tendency is a Germanic one however not of L influence. (discussed below).

If /p/ does not exist in CA and shows signs of being only a phonetic variant in OE, how has it become the dominant sound in L?

If one remembers that L is a language that has lost over 45% of its consonants and that this loss is mainly in the back consonants so that the effect on the language was to move its articulation to a more forward position (there is no counterbalancing effect of front vs back cons in L as there is in CA) then new sounds were needed, sounds that would not contradict the general tendency towards a front point of articulation.

Such a sound was found in Greek. As a matter of fact L has taken much from Greek and the tendency to make /p/ a master phoneme to cover all kinds of losses in the language was already found in Greek. The usage of /p/ and its variants /ps pt pn/ have in Greek as high a ratio in comparison with the rest of the language as they do in L. If we consider that 20% of the words that begin with /p/ in L have come from Gr. (if we subtract this percentage from the L usage of /*p* / we find that /p/ in Gr has a higher percentage of usage than that of L, 15% to 12%. This sound may have become a favourite in L through the influence of Gr upon it. It may have entered the language through the concentration of its articulation and the tendency may have been corroborated by the influence of Gr upon L.

But let us look at some example of /p/ in L.

Ex : CA [baeqa:] L pācō, CA (remaining motionless, hence in peace).

CA [bæleyah] L palus/ (useless land or marsh, wet land)

CA [ɜælæn] L palam (openly, public)

CA [bae:ra] L par (peer, rival , equal).

In the examples above there is a simple cors of /b/:/p/ by AC and /ɜ/ : /p/ by CC. CA [næbae:t] L planta (plant), CA [fae'l] L parra (bird of ill omen), CA /ɜaqd/ L pactio (pact, agreement) L parō CA (HæD'Dara) (to prepare).

In the above words we find the cors /b/:/p/ only in the first example, and that /b/ has undergone metathesis, then the cors /f/ : /p/ /ɜ/ /p/ and /d/ : /p/.

Clearly /p/ has become a favourite that replaces a number of sound. If we compare :

CA [hudhud] L upupa (hoopoe), CA [felfel] L piper (peper)

CA [lubæbæh] L pulpa (pulp, pith).

The above forms are taken from frequentative verbs in CA, hence the repetititon.

CA [yaqtiyn] L pampion, (pumkin) CA bardi L papyrus, (paper)

CA [gibilah] L populus, (people)

CA [faeqiyr] L pauper, (poor)

In the above examples L began by changing one phoneme into /p/ through AC or CC, then changed the other also into /p/ by EC. This tendency is found in Gr. In fact 1 and 2 above L has taken from Gr.

In the above examples one notices that /p/ replaces many different sounds, and that /b/ its voiced cors is the sound it replaces more often, not /f/. Had /p/ originated in L as replacement of /f/ then /f/ would have been the sound it replaces more often. /f/ as shown above is a favourite in L and occurs in it far more often than /b/, while in CA, the usage of the two sounds are rather close in the ratio of 9.5:11. In L there is the reverse tendency of 1:4.

In other words /f/ is used four times as much as /b/. Clearly the usage of /b/ has been diminished in favour of /p/. While the usage of /f/ has increased a little due to its replacing other fricatives as we have shown earlier.

In Gr we find /f/ used very sparingly and /b/ also. They have both been discarded often in favour of /p/. It is from Gr that this tendency must have originated. In L /p/ may have started out as a voiceless allophone of /b/ to be used with voiceless sounds by assimilation, as it still is in words like urbs (pronouced urps) CA [arb] (cleverness, know how, hence civilization), then through the influence of Gr it became the favorite phoneme.

If we compare the forms below:

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA	OE	CA	L
seven	seofon	septum	[sæbЭah]	/f/	/b/	/p/
tax	gafel	gabulum	[gæbcyah]	/f/	/b/	/b/
foot	fōt	pedem	[qædaem]	/f/	/q/	/p/
fish	fisc	piscis	[fisiyx]	/f/	/f/	/p/

As the above forms reveal there is a tendency in OE to use /f/ where there is /b/ in CA, and a tendency in L to use /p/ where there is /b/ in CA. In the examples above from 1 to 3 are cases of tri cors. Only case 4 can be considered a case of direct cors of /f/:/p/. The theory that there is direct cors between /p/ in L and /f/ in Germanic languages is true only in a very limited number of cases. It is certainly not an overall rule and is in most cases tri cors through a third phoneme as shown above.

Dr. Boswell observes (Anglo-Saxon Dic p. 64) that the sounds which use the same organs of speech, /f p b v/ take each others places in related

languages. What is the relationship of these sounds to each other? There is NC between /b p/ and between /p f/ and /f v/ /v b/. Since such is the case one would expect to find InC between them also. This is indeed the case.

If we compare the words below all from the same RV/ garafa/ in CA and grafan in OHG. CA cog sup. [garfan] (to dig out, away earth) Mod Eng grave, OE gerefa (a reef), Ger Graben, CA gurf (a reef) Gr golfos (a gulf).

In the above forms there is the cors of /f/:/b/:/v/:/f/ predominates since it is the original, nevertheless the other related phonemes also appear.

In the above cors the main tendency in OE was to replace /b/ by /f/. According to our hypothesis, discussed in Chap XIII, of two phonemes if X can replace y, Y can also replace X. Can we find example in OE where /b/ replace /f/?

If we compare :

OE	OSp	L	Gr	CA	L
brae*p*	brisa	zaephyrus	ζeφv*p* os	[zafiyr]	spiritus

The OE form is Mod Eng "breath" and the OSp form is Mod Eng 'breeze'. The RV of all the forms above is in CA [zaefaeara] to exhale, to draw out a long breath. The freq of this verb is [zæfzæfa] it is used to describe the movement of the wind rustling in the trees, a soft breeze. But [al zæfzæf] is used to describe a strong continuous blowing.

Since the semantic content can afford to describe both the movement of the wind and the air coming out of the lungs, it was used in OE and L to describe the human breath, in Gr and OSp to describe the wind, specially the west wind. While in CA the V is used to produce words denoting both movements.

The cors among the above is the following according to the order given above b:b:f:φ:f:p and θ:z:z:ζ:z:s.

In the above forms OE and OSp replace /f/ by /b/, while the word has entered L twice. The first innate form is spiritus from spiro (to breath) and here L replaces /f/ by /p/ by AC In the second word which has entered the language through Gr / f/ is replaced by ph. It was the combination used by the Romans to represent the Gr Letter φ. In later

Pop L /f/ was often substitued for 𝔭𝔥. The Romans already had /f/ in their language. Why did they write Gr φ as 𝔭𝔥? It is quite possible that Gr φ was neither a clear [p] or a clear [f] but a combination, which induced the Romans, when they first heard it to replace it by 𝔭𝔥.

In the OE and OSp this word has undergone metathesis to conform to the clustering rules of the language concerned to be dicussed in due course.

9.10 P in OE :

If there is AC betwen /f/ and /p/ can one find a form where CA /f/ is replaced by /p/ in OE? In L we know it is the dominant tendency but in OE it is not. So long as there is NC between two phonemes one should expect to meet such a cors, even if it occurs in a very few cases.

Ex : CA [cænaf] OE cnapa

This word comes from the RV [caenafa] and it means to take under one's protection. Hence a client, servant, retainer.

Can one come across CA /b/ replaced by /p/ in an OE word as it is in L? This is a NC therefore it is always possible, but not in the same numbers as in L. If we compare the forms below :

OE	OHG	Icel.	L	CA
cnaep	Knoph	knappr	caput	[qobæh] or [qobætun]

The word means top, dome in CA, top, knop in OE and OHG and head in L. The difference between the OE and the OHG form is that OE has deleted the final /h/ while OHG has retained it. (for the GS in Icel. see 12.2) L has deleted the final -un to give the word a new inflectional ending. This pattern is dicussed more fully when CA patterns are examined. We have given this example to show the possibilities of NC.

P in OE : while in L /p/ is the dominant phoneme, the favourite, in OE it is used sparingly in initial position, and mainly in words taken from L. While in final position it is used as a voiceless allophone of /b/ or a cover term for consonants not found in OE. It appears that there is a tendency in OE to soften stops towards the end of words by changing a voiced sound to a voiceles one. A back consonant to a more front one or a stop to a fric. (CF, OE suð and OHG. sund.).

CA /sudae:/ (cf with the Mod Ger tendendy to change /d/:/ to /t/ when in final position).

Ex : CA [ɜamiyq] OE deóp, CA [saeHiyq] OE steóp. (deep, steep)
CA [cærbæsæ] OE cryspian. (To make crisp, to crush together)
L crispare. OE clyppan, CA [qab'balæ] (to kiss, embrace)

9:11 W In OE :

In OE the sound used more often than any other in initial position is /w/. It forms over 16% of all sounds in initial position in this language, against only 5% in CA. In L it is non-existent for it is changed to either /v/ or /u/ or less often /h/.

Why has this sound attained such great numbers in OE? In order to understand what has happened in OE, one has to go back to the morphological rules of CA. In CA /w/ has two separate functions, as a cons and as a semi-V1. As a cons it may occur in initial, medial or final position as one of the three cons of a verb., as a semi-V1 it occurs in medial or final position as part of a diphthong by which other categories are derived from two syl V (see 6.10). Since these V form the second largest group of verbs in the language, after the three syl group, we should expect a great many forms to have a medial or final /w/. In OE this medial or final /w/ is brought to initial position by metathesis or deletion of the cons before it.

Ex : CA [maewaga] OE wagian (to wave), CA [naeHabae] OE wepan (weep lament /H/ : /w/.
CA [hæwæ'] OE wind, CA [θarwaeh] OE wealth.

The second cause is purely phonetic. /w/ has both AC and CC with other sounds. We have shown when dealing with /H/ how often it was changed to /w/ by CC. Similarly /m/ is also changed to /w/ by AC.
Ex : CA [Haql] OE wic (field), CA [hiylah] OE wil (wile)
CA [maTar] OE water (rain water in CA, any water in OE).

Since the sound has disappeared in L, profusion in OE forms one of the basic differences in the sounds of L and OE (ultimately Germantic languages). The difference can look great indeed. Let us take one word and compare :

CA [His]	L sens-us	OE	wis

Here we have three words which look quiet different, when actually they are cognates. The difference is that L changes /H/ frequently to other fricatives, in this case /s/, and that OE has changed it to /w/ by CC. It is a case of Tri cors. From the RV [Hæs 'sæ] comes the N [His] which means sense, feeling, the five senses, and from this comes the L semantic content. But the V has the wider meaning of understanding through the senses, having perception or intuition through them. Hence OE wis and wisdom. (for the medial /n/ in the L word see 12.5).

9. 12 W and V in L :

In L /w/ was a bilabial semi-V1, as it is in OE and CA, but under the empire it became the labio-dental fricative /v/. In consequence when examining the correspondences of /v/ in L, one has to deal with two kinds of cors, one superimposed upon the other. The cors of /w/ like /H h m/ and the cors of /v/ like /f R h/. There is overlap as seen above and the two sounds are rather close, nevertheless there are two sets of correspondence not one.

Cors of W :

Ex : CA [waedi] OE wadian L vadum (to wade as V, ford as N).
CA [watiyn] L vein, (vein) CA (Heniyah] L venia (mercy, sympathy) (for more examples see 8.14).

Ex :	CA [Ragaeri]	L vagari (vagrant, in CA gipsy	/R/:/v/
	CA [Radara]	L vadere (to go away)	/R/:/v/
	CA [fa:Di]	L vidus (empty, void	/f/:/v/
	CA [fæ:ni]	L vanus (vain, useless)	/f/:/v/
	CA [fae:sid]	L vapidus (foul)	/f/:/v/
	CA [buxa:r]	L vapor (smoke, vapour)	/x/:/v/

In the above examples /v/ replaces /w/ completely and takes over some of the forms beginning with /f/ as well, together with some of the fricatives that do not exist in L.

/v/ is a sound that does not exist in CA. How did it originate? If we look at the picture in the Sinai alphabet of what cors with /f v/ in L. We find it is a key. The word in CA is [mifta:H] the RV is [fataHa] (to open). It begins with /f/ and ends with /H/. /v/ then may have started out rather like and aspirated /fh/. /H/ is a voiced gutteral sound, so /f/ had to become voiced also. The result is the sound /v/ as we know it in Mod Eng, or something very close to it.

Intersestingly /v/ occurs in OE as an allophone of /f/ in medial and final position (opus cit p 262). The rune that represents both /f v/ is **feóh**. Like the Sinaitic symbol it begins with /f/ and ends with /h/ which in OE represents /H/ also.

9.13 H and h in OE :

In OE there are no favourites[1] in the same sense as there are in L. No phoneme has taken the place of all others regardless of whether they are its close correspondents or not, but there are sounds more favoured than others. /h/ is the sound used most often after /s/ /w/. We would have attributed such usage to the original existence of /h/ and /H/ in great numbers in CA, had it not taken the place of other fricatives and been removed to initial position through metathesis. /h/ has become a favourite in OE, but within the limited and moderate movements of OE. Actually there were two tendencies. The first, shared by L, was to delete /h/ and replace it by other fricatives, mainly /f/. Then a second movement, which replaces /f/ as well as other fricatives by /h/. This second movement is not found in L, and has compensated the language for much of what it had lost of the usage of /h/ through the earlier tendency. We assume that this movement was after separation of the Romance and the Germanic branches.

In CA there are two /h/ sounds, a gutteral voiced fricative and a voiceless aspirated one. /H/ and /h/. In OE both sounds exist but not in writing, for the old scribes did not differentiate between them in writing. In consequence the letter /h/ is used very often in OE, since it represents two sounds. It is used almost as much as /h/ a spirant, and /H/ the voiced gutteral are used together in CA. In CA there are two distinct sounds and two distinct graphemes. Together their usage exceeds a little the usage of OE /h/, however this recovery is not in the original forms but in new ones.

The name of the anglo-Saxon runic letter is haegl (hail) or CA [haeyl]. The graphemes that represents it are three. One is rather close to L capital H, the second to Phoenician H and the third to Sinaitic H. This is not extraordinary, since we do come across such resemblances betwee these old runes and other old scripts.

OE	⋕	ǂ		ᚺ
Phoenician	#		𐤇	
Sinaitic		ᛉ		

Since both /h/ and /H/ are found in OE and CA, there are very many cognate forms, but while in CA each V heads its family, in OE words are recorded according to alphabetical order, so that words of the same family are placed wide apart and the connection between them is not traced. Then the V1 are often spelled differently according to the usage of different scribes, so that one cannot trace the connection between forms of the same RV unless one knows their cors in CA.

Ex : CA [Haefaeh] OE haefene (haven, border, bank in CA)
CA [Haefin] OE (heaven, margin, limit in CA)
CA [Hae:f] OE hefig (heavy, oppressive).

The root of the forms above is the V/ Haef 'fa / to border, to be on the edge of, to mark the limit, to surround, to infringe. When used for the sky it denotes heaven in OE, when used in the contrast of sea land it denotes a border, hence a haven, when used in the sense of to encroach, to go beyond limits, as it is used also in CA, the adj (heavy) is derived from it.

Ex : CA [haeyen] OE heān (small, low, of no consequence, humble)
CA [huwn] OE hwōn (slight, humble, low)

The first adj comes from the V [hae:na] to be little or of no consequence, humble. The second comes from the V derived from it, the V [haewaena] to make little, humble of no consequence. The first can be used intransitively, and in some cases transitively. The second is always transitive.

After /h/ has become a favourite in OE it began to take the place of other fricatives as well as sounds not found in OE.

Ex : CA [raRiyf] OE hlaf (loaf), CA [ɜonuq] OE hnecca (neck),
CA [šaɜr] OE haer (hair), CA [faras] OE hors (horse)
CA [fulk] OE hulk (boat), CA [naSaTa] OE hlistan (to listen)

Through this new favorite in OE, two oppositing tendencies exist in L and OE. In OE to replace other fricatives by /h/ and in L to delete /h/ or replace it by other fricatives as we have shown earlier. The result is cors like those below :

Mog Eng	OE	L	CA
mutilate	hamelian	mutilare	[mæθ 'θalæ]
war	hild	bellum	[Harb]

1. Here OE has brought /θ / to initial position after changing it to /h/ while L has changed it to /t/, this is a case of tri cors. /h/:/t/./θ/
2. OE changed final stop to /d/, while L has deleted /h/ and brought /b/ to initial position, both have changed /r/ to /l/ by AC.

9.14 /b/ in OE :

After /H/ /s/ and /h/, /b/ comes as the fourth sound used most in OE. It is a bilabial stop and may be considered approximately the same in the three languages. The cors of /f/ has shown that /f/ in OE has taken over many of the words beginning with /b/ in OE. How then has /b/ become the fourth sound in the language? The reason is that /b/ has taken over many of the words beninning with /ɜ/. /ɜ/ is a sound used very much in CA. In OE it is very often replaced by /b/ in words containing /r/as depicted and also words containg other cors of /ɜ/, mainly stops. Then many of the words containing in CA /b/ in medial position have undergone metathesis to bring it to initial position, the mark of the favourite. In a few cases it takes the place of other sounds with which it has NC.

Is it possible that this tendency to make /b/ a favourite started out in both L and OE simultaneously, so that many words began with /b/, then in a second stage L has changed these to /p/ as a new cors? This must have happened in a few cases, but on the whole the words chosen by OE and those of L are not the same. Had most of these forms been the same, we could have assumed that this was probably the case, but since OE has totally different words from L, we have to assume that these were two separate movements. Then L was very much influenced by Gr, while OE was not.

The OE rune which stands for this letter is beorc, in L betula and in CA [baetulah] (birch). The OE rune looks exactly like the old Gr B, and the drawing in the Sinaitic alphabet is that of a house, rather like a square. The word for house in CA is [baeyt], the letter came to be called in Gr beta. It comes from the V [bae:ta] to remain, spend the night, dwell. Its OE cog is bidan. From the same V comes the V [baeyaeta] to plot against, to plan by night, hence secretly, lay a snare. It is found in OE as bitan (to bait).

Sinaitic	South Aratic	CA	Phoenician	Later Gr	OE
□ ⊔ ⊓	⊓	ب	9 9	B	B

for more on Sinaitic see 1.1

There are many words which have retained their original /b/ sounds like bearo(grove, low ground CA [bue°rah] and barda (beaked ship) CA [bardaeh] (anything that has appointed edge) from the same RV comes OE beard, CA [baerd] (what was filed or pointed in CA and beard in OE).

While other words used to have other sounds, but were drawn into the /b/ group.

Ex : [fawa:r] OE beór (beer in OE, what is effervecent in CA)

CA [ɜahd] OE bad (pledge, promise) CA [ɜaewaeg] OE boga (what is bent or twisted, hence bracelet, or collar in OE)

CA [Haeraqa] OE beornan (to burn) CA [haemeyah] OE beorma (what can ferment in CA, yeast or leaven in OE)
CA [ɜown] OE ban (killer, giant)

Some words have undergone metathesis to bring /b/ to initial position, and some have undergone both metathesis and deletion.

Ex : CA [citae:b] OE bóc (book)
CA [cubry] OE bricg (bridge)
CA [cabiyr] OE big, (big)

The result is that many words look different in L, OE and CA.

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA
terror	broga	terror	[roɜb]
bread	bread	cibus	[xobz]

1. OE has changed /ɜ/ to /g/ because the word already contains /b/ and brought /b/ to initial position, while L has changed /ɜ/ to /r/ by assimilation to /r/ and changed /b/ to /t/ by AC, bringing it to initial position. In 2 OE has brought /b/ to initial position and changed /z/ to /r/ by AC, and /x/ to /d/ by InC. The L cors is /x/:/c/, /z/:/s/.

While cibus and cibarius mean coarse bread in L and food also , as they do in CA, (a metonymy referring to all foods by one) L panis could have been a special kind of bread which is in OHG tamis (and in Saudi Arabia today [taemiyz].

Notes : We do not consider /w/ a favourite in the same sense as /p/ in L because it already existed in great numbers in CA and is dictated by the morphological rules of the language as shown in (6.10).



Chapter X

ECHOIC CORRESPONDENCE

10.1 Echoic correspondence in L and OE

In CA the phoneme, or the same phoneme and its nearest correspondent, do not occur in the same word, unless it is significant in the SS of CA and dictated by the semantic requirements that the word fulfills. In L and OE we find a new kind of cors that dictates a new morphological pattern produced for phonetic considerations and dictated by the phonetic rules of the language. It has no connection with the SS of the language which no longer exists, nor with the semantic content. It is a purely phonetic phenomenon. It is that one of two sounds in some words is removed and replaced by another sound, either one in the same word or one that is closely connected with it by AC, in order to give a sort of echoic effect. The phenomenon exists in both L and OE. While it depends mostly on the original sounds of each word, it occurs more often in sounds that have become favorites as other correspondences do. We have given (9.9) some examples of such cors in /p/ in L and of /h/ in OE.

Ex : In OE deăd (deed) CA [dachae:] ceăc (cheek) [faec] (jaw in CA) coq (rooster) CA [diyk], OE dag, CA [DoHa:]

Ex in L : rarus (rare) CA [naeder], L caecus CA [æ'eæm] (blind, dark) OF barrier (barrier) CA [barzax] L sensus (sense) CA [His] L cacumen, CA [qemah]

If we compare the forms below we would be able to see the role that EC plays in changing the sound of words.

Mod Eng	OE	L	CA
1- pure	toht	purus	[Tohr]
2- beard	beard	barba	[bardah]
3- drink	drincan	bibere	[šæribae]
4- crab	crabba	cancer	[caboriyah]
5- dead	dead	mortus	[Mæyet], [mæwt]

1- OE has changed final /r/ to /t/ by EC, while L has changed /T/ to /p/ FC.

2- L has changed final /d/ to /b/ by EC (the word in CA means pointed, filed) it has the same RV as the OE word barda, which means beaked ship. The RV in CA is [bæradae] to give a point, to file.

3- OE has changed initial /s/ to /d/ by FC, and final/b/ to /c/ by EC. (18.5 for d) while L has deleted initial /š/ a sound not found in the language, then changed /r/ to /b/ by EC.

4- OE retains the original sounds but has changed the pattern (see 12.4) L has changed /b/ to /c/ by EC.

5- In this last Ex. L has changed /w/ to /r/ by FC. In order to understand how the OE word came to look so different let us compare the Ger adj tōt. and CA /maeyet/. Ger has replaced initial /m/ by /t/ by EC, then changed the V1 nucleus to a long Vl. OE has changed both /t/ and /t/ to /d/ by FC but retained theV1 nucleus, /y/ is written as /a/ in many OE words. The word must have been pronounced /deye:d/ Cf. with ON deyja. It is a case of Inc.

The tendency is not peculier to L and Germanic languages alone in fact it prevailes in Gr and has entered L through Gr particlarly where the cors of /p/, the favourite and /b/ its voiced cors are concerned.

Ex : Gr ßoλßos, CA [baSal] (bulb), Gr ßißλiov, CA (citae:b) (book) OE cog bóc.

CHAPTER XI

CA NOMINAM AND ADJECTIVAL PATTERNS

11.1 Usage in CA :

In Chapter Six we have examined some of the 2syl. and 3syl. V groups which are the most numerous in the language. In this chapter we shall examine the main pat. derived from 2syl and 3 syl V groups. The pattern of a N, adj or adv is always contigent on the RV from which it is derived. The word pattern is used here as a cover term to include, the stress pat, the number of syl and the V1 shape. All these together form the pattern of a word in CA. This pat decides its category and gender, besides giving other information about it as we shall see below. These patterns are highly productive and, given the RV, the native speaker can produce whatever category he desires at will.

As we have mentioned all categories are derived from the RV. Now let us see how this is done. If we take a typical 3 syl V like [qaTaɜa] (to cut) OE cuttan. [qaTaɜa] is the unmarked form. Its Vl are in a latent state. But they are the mobile part of the V, while the cons. are the immobile or permanent part. The Vl may be reduced, changed, lengthened, made diphthongs or deleted, the cons may not. Therefore the root of the V is (q T ɜ) let us examine some of the categories that may be derived from this root.

[qaTaɜa]	the unmarked form, 3rd pers sing
[qaTɜan]	the supine
[qaTɜ]	cutting
[qa:Teɜ]	adj, denoting doer of action, he or what cuts.
[qawateɜ]	flockes of birds leaving the land
[qaTa:ɜ]	a deserter, rejecter, faithless.
(qaTTaɜa]	V derived from RV, to cut to pieces, to cut violently.
[inqaTaɜa]	to stop, cease, ref l. V by means of pref /in-/
[taqaTAaɜa]	to cut in pieces, or to cut itself. V + pref / ta-/
[aqTaɜa]	become ripe to cut pref /a-/
[qitɜah]	a piece of, L cog cantle

[qoT϶]	someonse stranded in a foreign land
[aqTa϶]	mained in hand, V + pref /a/ - to form adj.
[taqTiy϶]	severe cholic V+ pref to form N
[al qa:Te϶]	the model after which things are cut
[qiT϶]	a scion, the branch of a tree
[qoT϶iyah]	cutting each other accidentally in war
[qaT϶iyah]	a cut of meat, or the way matrial is cut.
[munqaTi϶]	peerless, of peerless model, unique. V+ pref to form N
[maqta϶]	the end, the crossing of roads, a border. Pref /ma/- used.
[miqTa϶]	a sharp instrument for cutting paper or wood. (for ma- see 7.26)
[muqtaTa϶]	choice selection of poetry
[muqata϶ah]	cutting people financially, hence a boycott.
[qatiy϶]	herd of sheep. OE cog heard, Skr cog cardhas

11.2 Mobility of Vl in CA :

We notice in the examples above how the Vl are reduced, deleted, lengthened to give new categories and new semantic content. They are highly mobile and do the work of suffixes and other affixes in modern languages. One often hears of the archaic Vl of old languages. From the above it becomes clears that these great Vl are a very economical and efficient method of producing new forms. The semantic content of each V is allowed maximum range. What we have done with the V [qaTa϶a] above may be done with almost any 3 syl V. In CA only modal V have a more limited capacity, but then they have other functions as well.

11.3 C V C C :

The first pat. we shall examine is a nominal pat. If the V has the pat CVCVCV this pat is CVCC. The medial and final Vl are deleted. It is also common in L and OE, though some of the words which originally carried this pat have undergone some changes, these will be dicussed in due course.

Mod Eng	OE or L	CA	RV in CA	Sem cont.oF RV
tower	OE burg	[burg]	[bæragæ]	to protrude
throat	OHG hals	[Halq]	[Hælaqa]	to circulate, fly over
death, killing	L necs	[naHr]	[næHara]	to cut throat, slay
gulf	Gr golf-os	[gur f]	[gærafa]	to dig out,
copper	L cupr-um	[qeTr]	[qaTTara]	to make descend in drops
horn	L corn-us	[qarn]	[qarana]	to hold together
bottom	OE botm	[baTn]	[baTuna]	to be below, hidden
heart	L cors	[qalb]	[qalæba]	see 17.10
purity	OE toht	[Tohr]	[Tahara]	to purify
shield	OE targe	[terse]	[tærasæ]	to make a barrier

Comparison of the above forms shows that this pat exist in both L and OE. It is found also in Gr and in Ger words as shown above.

11.4 CVCVC :

The next pat. is also a nom pat and is used for the inanimate or animal more than the human, nevertheless we find it sometimes used for the human in L or OE but not in CA,where it is used for the inanimate or animal only. It is less frequent than the previous pat in all the three languages.

Mod Eng	OE or L	CA	RV in CA
dawn	ON dagan	[dægaen]	[dægæna] faint light
coffin	Kofinos Gr.	[cæfæn]	[cæfæna] to cover dead
mass, pile	L cumul-us	[gæmal] [a camel]	to amass, to collect
curb, iron instument	camus	[qamas]	to cut, restrict

The above examples show that this pat also is found in OE and in L as well as Gr although many of the words which carried this pat in CA have undergone methathesis and other changes in both L and OE, while some which do not carry this pat in CA have acquired it in L and OE. These are dicussed in due course.

11.5 CVCV:C :

The next pat belongs to the masc and animate, it is rather close to the previous one except for the final long Vl. It has undergone changes in both L and OE but one can perceive that at one time it was the same, and that these Vl changes are part of the general reduction of Vl which we have observed earlier.

Mod Eng	L or OE	CA	RV in CA
eagle	eagle	[ɜoqa:b]	[ɜaqabæ] to pursue, to race
fellow	félaga	[faelae:H]	[fæla Hæ] to till the soil
slave	famul-us	[hæmæ:l]	[Hæmælæ] to carry, to brear
vaqour	vapour	[buxa:r]	[baxara] to steam or produce vapour

Adjectival Pattern :

The next three pat are adj. pat and they also exist in L and OE. While in CA they are significant, the first as doer of the action, the second as undergoer of the action, and the third as having such and an epithet, or characteristic, in L and OE they have lost these distictions. These adjectival pat may be used as N, and are so used in CA, in L and OE also.

11.6 CV:CEC :

The first pat is CV:CEC. This pat denotes the doer of the action final EC is its mark, and it is the same as the Mod Eng N in -er, (as driver, baker, diver etc). In L this pat is often mixed with the one suceeding it, that of the undergoer of the action, nevertheless it still exists though this distinction is sometimes submerged.

Mod Eng	OE or L	CA	RV in CA	Sem cont of RV
hoof	Proto Ger hofoz*	[Hæ:fer]	[Hæfara]	to scratch or dig earth
just, noble	edel	[ɜae:del]	[ɜædaela]	to be fair, noble, just

11.7 The Adj Pat CVCI and CVCVCI :

The next pattern can be neuter or masc. It denotes a charecteristic. Something one can recognise an entity by, what it belongs to. It is found in L, in CA and in OE, some remnants are found in Mod Eng, the pattern

can be produced from both 3 syl or 2 syl verbs and in consequence may be either CVCI, for adj derived from 2 syl Vor CVCVCI for adj derived from three syl V.

Ex : L vagari, CA [Raegari], Mod Eng chilly, CA [qa:ri]

Mod ENG adj like friendly, homely, manly etc are made after the same pattern.

When dealing with change of patterns we shall see how many of the adjectives of this pat have changed in both L and OE.

11.8 CVCIYC :

The next pattern may be used as an adj or N depending on its position in the sentence. It is found in both L and OE. It is the pat CVCIYC

Mod Eng	OE or L	CA	RV in CA	Semantic Content
fish	fisc	[fisiyx]	[fæsaxa]	to slit open
Kiln	camin	[caemiyn]	[cæmæna]	to be inside, deep in
grass, herb	mugil	[næ giyl]	[nægælae]	to sprout, produce leaf
equal	equal-is	[ɜaqiyl]	[ɜæqalæ]	to put or equate with
antique	antiqus	[ɜatiyq]	[ɜætaeqa]	to grow very old.

11.9 The Feminine Patterns :

All the patterns given above, wether nominal or adjectival, or patterns that may be used for either, depending on their role in the sentence, (for CA, as we shall note when we come to examine its structure, is both inflectional and analytic), were either masculine sing. or neuter sing. In order to convert any of these pat to the feminine we have to add /at/ to the pat, if the pat comes from a 3 syl V and a semi-Vl as infix, then/at/, if the pat comes from a 2 syl V. Therefore /at/ is the hall mark of the fem. sing in CA. But this final /t/ is very often written as/h/ and in speech not pronounced at all. That is the reason grammarians call it restricted /t/. It is a a latent /t/ which is pronouced as /at/, if it is followed by an inflectional Vl, but as /h/, if it is not followed by an inflectional Vl. In consequence, in L where /h/ is deleted most of the time, /a/ alone remains as the mark of the feminine. In OE there are many word that reveal that /a/ was the mark

of the feminine in early times but that it was changed to /e/ possibly in accord with the general movement for reduction of VI. Then the masculine has acquired /a/ as ending in OE. The result is that while words ending in /ah/ in CA and /a/ in L are very common, since they are the counterpart of all the masculine patterns we have given above as well as other patterns we have not, in OE they become less frequent since they represent one pattern of the masculine, and not all fem. patterns.

Let us now take a few of the patterns given above and change them to the feminine,

Ex :1. Pat from 3 syl V [gamiyl] (comely) OE cymlic. Masc sing. Fem [gæmiylah] or [gæmiylatu] or if emphasis is desired [gæmiylatun]
2. Pat from 2 syl V whose pat is CVC 'CV [Da:1] (heretical, astray, dull) OE dd and dwol. Fem. [Da:lah] or [Da:latu] or [Da:latun]
3. Layen (soft, flexible) L lenis from 2 syl V of pat CV:CV Fem [laeyenah], [layenatu] or [layenatun]

The final /n/ given above is called "tanwin". (it is discussed in 12.5).

11.10 Let us see how the fem appears in L and OE :

Ex :

Mod Eng	L or OE	CA	RV in CA	Semantic Content
table	mensa	[maenaSah]	[naS'Sa]	to stress
cell, chamber	cella	[qilalah]	[qal'la]	to grow less
chart	Gr charta	[xarTah]	[xaraTa]	to cut out
link, circle	hlenca	[haclaqah]	[Haelæqa]	hover around
navel	nafela	[næfelah]	[næfælæ]	to be extra
a lie	ferynca	[feriyah]	[færa:]	to tell falsehoods.

The first two examples are from L, the third is found in L but taken from Gr., while the last three are from OE. In OE one often comes across words ending in-a which are marked as masc, by analogy with the new pat, but which are fem in CA, like nafela above. In OE it means navel, while in CA it has a wider meaning, it is anything that is in excess. The imbiblical chord is in excess, hence the OE usage. Some words of this pattern retain the fem like hamela; which means

oar-loop in OE but anything one can hang or attach something else to in CA. Again we notices the wider meaning in accord with the RV and the more restricted semantic content in OE. This is the natural consequence of the loss of the RV in this language. Sometimes the difference between the masc and fem of certain forms in OE is affected by this change of pat.

If we compare CA [ɜæm] masc. sing, and [ɜæmatu] fem sing, with their counter parts

(uncle and aunt). In OE we find the masc eam, while the fem is a totally new form derived from father. It is fæðu. (2.6).

11.11 Usage of the Fem pat in CA :

When is the feminine pattern used in CA? Does it have the same uses as in IE languages? The feminine pattern has the folowing uses in CA:

1. To denote the feminin sex, Ex : [gæriyah] (girl) OE girl (/l/:/y/ by CC) CA [læbuae°] L lupa (she-lion in CA, she-wolf in L).
2. Abstract N.L rhapsodia, CA [RabTah] has entered L through Gr. (great joy)
3. The individual, the single instance against the general, the common or the substance. It we compare ON skar and L petra, taken from Gr. we find that the difference betwee them in CA is between the masc pat and the fem. They are [Saxr] and [Saxratu] (rock). ON has changed /x/ : /c/ by CC, and removed it to form a cluster with /s/, while L has deleted it completely and brought final /t/ to medial position. /S/ : /p/ by FC. The difference in semantic content in CA is that the masc means the substance, rock (like sand or gravel) but the fem always means a particular rock, a certain geographical entity. It is significant that the Greeks called the ancient Arab city of Tadmir 'Petra' because its inhabitants carved houses out of the rocky mountains. They have used the word as it is used in CA, a particular entity.
4. The fem. may be used for the masc. if the latter is something extraordinary, a genius, a monster, a rare phenomenon. L belua (monster, wild beast) OE balewa (the devil) and CA [baelwæh]

(dangerous being). They are all masculine entities for which the fem. pattern is used. They are cognate forms from the RV [bælæ:] to try, inflict with disaster, tempt, bring tribulation upon. The masc is in CA [bælæe'], OE balu. In the three languages, in this example, it is not the masc but the fem that is used for the extraordinary.

5. Conversely, a feminine entity may have a masc pat. If it is an ideal, sublime, unique, rare, without peer.

The word for earth, OE eorða L terra, CA [arD] are a fem, but the pattern in CA is a masc pattern, although the earth is 'she', because it is a rare unique entity. In OE and L the pat has been changed to the fem to go with its gender, but in CA the use of this pat for the fem gives it of the noble and sublime. (This usage is still found in Mod Fr. cf. le compagnon idéal.) In OE there are two words eard and it means native land, and eorða and it means the earth. OE has applied in this case the rule of 3 above. The L word is a mirror image of its CA countepart, cors /d/ : /t/ by AC. The pat is changed to have a GS because it is a fem pat in L see 12.2.

11.12 Patterns of the two syl Verbs :

In the preceding pages we have given the main patterns derived from 3 syl V. We shall give below the main patterns of the forms derived form 2 syl V.

V	N	N	ADJ
1- CVCV:	CVCVW	CVCV : E'	CVCV:
2- CV : CV	CVWC	CV : E C	CVYVC
3- CVC'CV	CVCVC	CIC	CAC

11.13 Nominal and adjectives patterns of two syl Verbs :

Forms derived from 2 syl verbs of pat 1 and 2 require an affix. It is an infix (w, y or Vl stop) if the long Vl is found in the initial syl, and a suffix, if the long Vl is found in the last syl of the V. In other words the affix added is where the long Vl is in the V from which the form is derived, so that one may look upon this long Vl as potentially a diphthong or a Vl stop, depending on the pat concerned. There are numerous forms that denote that these V exitsed in L and OE, and many of

them have not even changed, since they are already of two syl. In such V change occurs when there are cons that are not found in L or OE, or by analogy to acquire newer patterns, but not by deletion of one syl like three syl V.

11.14 Pat 1 V CVCV :

V	N	N	adj	Semantic Content
[saemae:]	[saemae°]	[sumuw]	[sae:mi]	high elevated, above
[Safae:]	[Safae°]	[Safwan]	[Sa:fi]	pure, clear,

From the first V above comes L same taken from Gr. From the second V [Safae:] comes L estivare (see 2.25) and OF estoff (stuff, material chosen) both are pref + V (see 7.22).

11.15 Pat 2 :

V	N	adj or N	adj or N	Semantic Content
[Ta:lae]	[Tuwl]	[Tawiyl]	[Ta: e°l]	to grow tall
[qa:le]	[qawl]	[qiyl]	[qa:el]	say, call
[Hae:la]	[Hawl]	[Hiyl-ah]	[Hae:e l]	to occur, turn round

From the first V comes OE ge-tael, CA cog [yaTiyl] to, make longer [Tuwl] (tall), from the second Proto-Ger collojan, CA cog [qawlan] also L calō and from the third comes OE hwile (a while), CA cog [Hawl]. (2.23) and L hora taken from Gr w*p* a.

11.16 Pat three CVC'CV :

The third pat having a GS forms its N and adj without the aid of an affix. Ex :

V	N	fem N	adj
[Dar'ra]	[Darar]	[Da : rah]	[Da : r]
[Dal'lae]	[Dalal]	[Dalalah]	[Da : l]
[Læg'ga]	[luga:g]	[lugah]	[lugey]

From the first V comes OE adj ðaru, CA cog [Da : r - u] (harmful) from the second comes OE ðōl and ðwol, CA cog [DA:l]. The adj has acquired two forms in OE, one having no medial /w/, like the original CA one, and one according to the tendency in OE to place /w/ as infix in forms derived from 2 syl V. It is not infrequent that one comes across two forms of the same adj in OE.

From this V comes the word lagu in OE and lacu in L, for more see (9.4).

11.17 Inflectional endings in CA :

There are five cases in CA whose infectional endings are the following :

The nominative	ending	is	u	[burg] or [burgu]
The vocative	ending	is	u	" "
The accusative	ending	is	a	[burgæ]
The genetive	ending	is	i	[burgi]
The dative	ending	is	i	[burgi]

The inflectional Vl have changed, as all Vl have, in L and OE nevertheless we can understand some of these changes by examining the CA ones, as we shall see presently. The endings given above belong to all N in CA, with the exception of some N in the dual number and some plurals which need not concern us here.

The dative in CA includes the instrumental and locative in L. OE, like CA, has the locative and instrumental merged with the dative (see Bauch 1968 P. 65).

The first thing one notices is that L like CA gives the vocative the same ending as the nominative. Because the vocative and the nominative have the same ending in the IE mother tongue, OE has merged them into one case. In CA the vocative is always preceded by the particle [yae] in the second pers sing and second pers Pl. In OE this [yae] appears as the pronoun(ge) and it is used for the second pers Pl. It has been replaced in Mod Eng by (you) which is used for both sing. and pl. as the old CA form.

11.18 The definite article in CA :

In CA the def art is /al/. It turns a common N into a proper N. /al/ is uninflectionable. It belongs to a class of words, mainly prepostions and particles as well as some adverbs which are called 'the uninflectionables' in CA. CA is a language that has been conceived with surprising economy and forethought, so that whenever inflection is not necessary (as in the case of nouns above) it may be discarded or picked up again according to the will of the speaker. In the parts of speech where it is redundant as in the case of /al/ because the N that follows it gives the required information concerning case, number and gender, it is non-existent.

Are there any remnants of /al/ in L and OE? Occasionally, one comes across /al/ in both languages as in OE el-boga (the bend). Here it is used to denote that this is not any bend, but the bend of the human arm or elbow. In Mod Eng it has become one word. (for a similar case in L see 15.23).

In L /al/ does not occur as art except in a very few remnants. It has become the demostrative 'ille' and gets inflected for case and number. Since the CA demonstratives beginning with /ha/ where also retained in L, we find more than one set of demostratives in this language.

In Romance languages /al/ appears as el (as in Italian) while in Mod Fr it appears as le. This /le/ is not an innovation, it appeared quite early among some of the old Semitic tongues (see 1.4).

A phonetic rule in CA decrees that before the phonemes /t θ d t r z ˥ ∂ S s š S D T ∂h n/ the def art shall be pronounced /a/ that is the /l/ is dropped. This may be the reason why it did not survive in most IE Languages.

Ex : [al fiyl], [al ayl] (an elephant, an elk)
but [a θu3bae:n] [azarafaeh] (a snake, a giraff)

11.20 The indefinite art in CA :

In CA any N that is not preceded by /al/ is considered a common N, unless it is preceded or followed by one of the other entities that change a common N into a proper N, such as a demostrative. In other words CA makes use of he negative as well as the positive aspects of the language. A lack of art means the indef art.

The indef art in L and OE :

Since L use the def art as a demostrative and originally there was no indef art, as we have seen in CA above, it follows that there are no articles in L.

In OE the def art is *þ* e. It is an abbreviated form of CA [hæðá]. It has not been abbreviated by OE however, but much earlier. We find it in some Semitic tongues (1.4) as well as some old Arab ones. The change must have taken place before the tribes left the peninsula. Since the demostrative is inflected for case and number in CA, this demostrative is also inflected for case and number in OE, even though it is used as the def art.

CHAPTER XII

SIX CAUSES OF CHANGE

In the preceding chapters we have dealt with the main causes of phonetic and morphological change in L and OE. In this chapter we shall deal with six features of CA that are a cause of change, only in the words where they occur, and not main tendencies. These features of CA are not new, we have met most of them before, but not as a cause of phonetic or morphological change. We have not investigated how a L and OE word can differ from its CA cognate, when one of these features appears. The six features are :

1. Final /t/ in the fem pattern.
2. In GS pat. in L and OE.
3. VI stops.
4. Geminette stops (GS).
5. Final /n/ or 'tænwiyn'.
6. Frequentative verbs.

12.1 Final T :

While examining CA fem patterns we have seen that the final ending can be /-ah/ (the /h/ is very often not pronounced) or /-at/. This final consonant is often deleted in L and OE. But what can occur, if it is not deleted ? Three things can take place :

It can remain as /t/ or a cors. of /t/ usually /d/ or it can remain as /h/ or a cors of /h/, either /g/ by CC, or /f/ by AC. But the fem ending has become /a/ in L and /e/ or an older from /a/ in OE. Therefore /t/ cannot remain as ending, if the N is to remain a fem N. The result is that this final consonant is removed to initial position to form a cluster with the initial consonant or to medial position becoming part of the stem. Occasionaly it remains in final position, giving the word a non -fem pat.

In the examples below we find the final /h/ replaced by /g/ by CC, remaining in final position :

OE secg, (way), CA [sec'cah], L virgo, (virgin in L, free woman in CA) CA [Hur'rah]. In OE creaft, (power, skill force) CA [qodrah]. In this example the final /h/ is removed to medial position and appears as /f/. The word has obtained a typical pat. (14.16) possibly because of the existence of /q/.

In the examples below final /t/ is removed to initial or medial position.

Ex : L castra, OE castel, CA [qaSratu] (castle, camp, private area)
OE strica fem, (a line, mark, stroke) CA [saTrah] /h/ : /c/ By CC
OE stream., (stream, small river) CA [særeyatu] this word is from Indo Eur root srou*, CA RV [særa:]. L cathedra, (chair) taken from Gr CA [curseyatu]
OE stofen (stem) CA [sæqatun] In the OE word /q/ : /f/ by CC.

12.2 The GS pattern in L and OE :

If we compare the CA with the L and OE forms below :

CA [bœ'gæh] OE bogga, CA [caboriyah] OE crabba, CA [ɜoqdæh) OE cnotta, CA (qaraDah) OE gnatt (a bag, crab, knot and gnat respectively).

OE frogga, CA [DofDaɜah) (frog).

L vacca, CA [naqah] (cow in L, in CA she camel) L catella, CA, [calbah] (bitch).

When we have the fem pat in C, we have a GS in OE rather frequently and in L also, less frequently. How has, this pattern which is derived from verbs which have a medial GS in CA become the correspondent of the feminine pattern in L and OE? One must bear in mind that language (although we are dealing here with the written language only) is spoken as well as written. If we pronounce the CA and OE forms, we would find the answer. The two forms, inspite of the morphological differences, when pronounced produce very much the same effect because the aspirated sound of the GS appears at the end as the final /h/ of the fem form. The only differnece is that the form having the GS is shorter and more compact, a tendency that falls in very well with the general tendecy towards more compact forms in OE, and to a lesser degree in L. How did this pat originate? It is not a new pattern but the fem pat of verbs having a medial GS in CA. Cf L olla, CA [qol'læh]. It was produced through the aspiration of the GS which appears at the end of the word as we have explained above.

12.3 Vl stops replaced by GS :

When dealing with vowels, we have met a kind of Vl which is found in CA but not in L or OE. This Vl is the Vl stop which is replaced by cons stops in L and OE. Since GS are also a kind of stop, there is AC

between Vl stops, GS and cons stops. In the examples below we show this reciprocal relationship, that is how Vl stops in CA may be replaced by GS in L or OE, and how the latter may be replaced by cons stops.

Ex : OE mann, CA [mare'], OE beginnan, CA [badæ'n] OE missa, CA [misae']
(a man, to begin and evening prayers in OE, but evening time in CA)

In the example above OE has replaced the Vl stop by a GS. The V to be is sometimes considered as pre+ V, by analogy with other V in OE which begin by the pref "be", but in CA it is an intergral part of the V which belongs to a long paradigm having /b/ as initial cons. When we come to study the SS of CA, we shall see why this has to be so. In the examples above we have shown how a Vl stop can be represented by a GS, below we shall give some examples of GS replaced by a cons stop.

12.4 GS replaced by consonantal stop :

If we compare :

fader, pater, [ab'bun] mater, [om'mun]

We find that the difference between the CA and the L and OE forms is, apart from the tri cors of /b/ : /p/ : /f/, the change of the GS of CA to a cons stop in L and OE.

Again if we compare :

L luxus OE lust, CA [læð'ðæh].

L sex OE six and CA [set'tah].

The difference between the CA and the L and OE forms is the change of the GS to a cons stop. It has been changed to (cs) in L because of the presence of /s/ in this word (for more on this word see 17.12, and for more on X see 5.18).

The semantic content of L lux is partly riotus living, extravagance, profusion, as well as luxury, the OE one is pleasure delight as well as sinful pleasure, the CA one means pleasure, delight as well as sensous pleasure.

12.5 Final-n in CA (Tanwiyn) :

When discussing the inflectional ending in CA, we have seen how a final /n/ may be attached to nouns. Since it is optional in most cases, (it may not be used in the genetive case) it may or may not occur in a CA

word. In CA it is used is speech only in formal address or in poetry, if the rhythm requires it.

If we examine the forms below, putting aside for the moment the difference in cons, and observing the difference in pat.

L or OE	CA N	CA N +um	RV in CA
antiquus	[ɜætig]	[ɜætiqun]	[ɜætiyq]
flint	[zalat]	[zalaTun]	[zalaTa]
OF danger	[xaTar]	[xaTarun]	[xaTara]

We notice that the L or OE form has a medial /n/ while the CA one has none, in fact the CA words are of regular patterns and derived from 3 syl verbs. How did the medial /n/ get into the L and OE cognates? The medial /n/ as the third column shows was originally the [tanwiyn], which was removed to medial position by metathesis so that the OE and L cog. came to have a medial infix. This change is part of a much wider movement which brings the final cons or syl in a word to initial or medial position and that we shall meet again in due course. We have seen how the final /t/ or /h/ in the fem pat was removed to medial position.

This is part of the same movement. Sometimes a V is derived in L or OE from a N and not from the RV. If the N contains this medial /n/ the verb derived from it will also contain this medial /n/.

Cf L fringere [faragæ] (to break up)
OF astoner [adhasæ] (to astonish)

Sometimes the medial /n/ is changed to /r/, if we examine some of these forms we may find out the reason.

Mod Eng	L	CA	CA N+Un
sadness	chagrin Fr	[šæгæn]	[šægænun]
garden	gardin	[gun'nah]	[gun'natun]
hunger	hunger OE	[hæmæg]	[hæmægun]
lamb	lembur	[Hæmal]	[hamælun]

In the cases above we notice that there is already a nasal in the word, so that the change of /n/ to /r/ has taken place through dissimilation. In L /r/ is a favourite and such change may occur by analogy or through FC. Sometimes /r/ in initial position does not signify an original /n/ but an original long Vl. It dependes on the morphological sturcture of the CA word in question.

The three forms below give us three different stages of how a word arrives at its final shape. The new pattern is found in OE.

CA [qa:reb-un] L carina OE cnear (boat, small ship)

The CA word gives the original form, in the L word one C has been deleted and the final /n/ has taken its place, becoming part of the stem. The OE word has had the same C deleted but has undergone metahtesis to bring the final /n/ to initial position to form a cluster with /c/ and give the typical pat discussed in 14.16.

The RV is [qarabæ] it means to come near, to approach, its first TV is [qar'rabæ] to bring two entities close to each other in time, space or relationship. The second TV is [qa:rabæ]. It means to make two entities or points come closer to each other relative to what they were before. It is from this last TV that the N above is derived because a boat brings two distant shores within reach of each other.

We notice how the TV give wider range to the semantic content, as well as greater syntactic capacity, for the original V is an intras V, the pattern having a GS is always a trans V and the third pattern gives a mitigated, relatively softer action.

From this same RV there is the word creber in L (close together, frequent, numerous). The cons /b/ has not been deleted here but the final /n/ has been changed to /r/ by EC.

From this RV in OE comes cneores (a generation, posterity, race tribe). The word has undergone the same metathesis as cnear above. In CA the V with its TV give both the L semantic content of closeness in space and time, and also the OE semantic content of closeness in blood, family relations, hence tribe, kin, relatives.

The ON word (near) 'near' comes also from the same root. Here the initial /c/ of cnear has been deleted. If we compare it with OE neah, we find the difference is that this /c/ has been changed to /h/ in OE and given final position. Now if we compare :

CA [qariyb] L creber, OE cnear and ON near we would get a living picture of how words evolve until they arrive at their Mod Eng shape.

12.6 Words derived form CA frequentative verbs :

Discussion of CA frequentative verbs is outside this limited outline, nevertheless we have to say a few words about them in order to show how the forms derived from them have evolved. CA frequentative verbs are derived from two syl V by means of repetition of one syl. In the SS of the language their pattern signifies continuous repetitive movement, and the native speaker can produce them at will from 2 syl V, to express repetitive action. Their equivalent in Mod Eng is the V **to keep** together with expressions like "again and again" or "over and over again".

Ex : from the V [cab'bæ] (to pour) one can produce [cabcæbæ] to keep spilling over and over again.

While such V are very expressive in CA, the forms produced from them like [baqlulah] and [qahqahatun] are obviously too long and do not conform to the new patterns of the language, and the overall tendency for more compact forms. The first appears in L as **bulla** and in Mod Eng as **bubb**le, the second appears in OE as **cehhettung**.

While the tendency to make words more compact was begun early in L and OE, in Mod Eng we find many of these forms derived from CA frequentative V in compact form. Dictionaries mention that these are derived from frequentative V but sometimes the wrong RV is given as source. They need to be traced and sorted out.

Mod Eng	CA	CA N
1. dazzle	[zaRlælæ]	[tezaRliyl]
2. flutter	[rafrafæ]	[rafrafah]
3. scatter	[šat'tata]	[taešiyt]
4. drizzle	[raz'raza]	[razæ:z]
5. fritter	[fat'tata]	[futæ:t]

CHAPTER XIII

MEGER AND HOMEPHONES
IN L AND OE

13.1 CA V Paradigms :

CA verbs do not occur singly but in paradigms of six, seven up to fifteen verbs or more. The difference between each V and the one preceding it is one consonant, so that we may find six or seven V with only the last consonant to mark the phonetic difference between them, and only one shade of meaning to mark the semantic one.

In L it is this final consonant that marks the difference, that is deleted and replaced by the inflectional ending. -re The result is that many V have disappeared in L, or merged together to produce a semantic content that may serve as a cover term for more than one V.

In OE the same thing has happened, except that the deleted syl may be any of the three syl, that is the first, second or third. If we add to this that the OE infinitive has the pat of the CA supine which gets reduced to two syl, and that in OE one cons of the two is assimilated to the one it is clustered with, in many cases, it becomes apparent that many 3 syl V have been reduced to two syl and become as a result homophones of two syl V.

If we recall further the loss of all the back cons which contrast with the front ones in CA, one realizes that it is not strange to find that of each CA paradigm only one or two V remain in L or OE. The V that survives is the V that is used more often, those that do not survive are the ones not used in everyday actions.

Another phenomenon which is characteristic of both L and OE is the appearance of a lone form to denote that at some early date the V and its family may have existed. This phenomenon we shall didcuss in Chapter XVII, while in this chapter some cases of merger and homophones are discussed.

13.2 On CA verb paradigms :

Ex : If we take the CA V paradigm [qaTaɔæ], [qaTabæ], [qaTara] [qaTanæ], [qaTafæ], [qaTamæ]

All these denote different ways of cutting or dividing by breaking or cutting. Due to the SS of the language most V of cutting begin with uvular back /q/. How many of this paradigm have survived? We find in OE [qaTaɘa] as cuttan, CA sup. [qaTɘan] and CA [qaTara] have survived. The latter has undergone the metathesis which V of such pat often undergo (14.16) and become dropian or droppian. The geminette there is to mark the main GS in the CA TV which is [qaT'Tara] (to drop and to make into drops or vapour).

In L all we find is one word from the V /qaTana/ it is catena (chain) (to cut in divisions, from the same source Mod Eng cotton) and another from [qaTara] (see 4.6).

Whatever paradigm one examines, there are several verbs that have disappeared or been merged. A few paradigms which have undergone metathesis and other changes have managed to survive almost whole, but most paradigms have been broken into single V, partly by the disappearance of the rest of the paradigm and partly by the phonetic changes that one member of a paradigm may undergo while another may not, as the case of drop and cut above (see XVIII).

13.3 Merger in L and OE :

Ex : In CA the V [qatæla] (to kill) OE cog cwillan, and the V [qad'dæ] to cut harshly, violently, break abrubtly are two different V belonging to two different paradigms. In L after [qatæla] has been reduced to 2 syl and the initial /q/ changed to /c/. It became /cata/. /t/ cors with /d/ by AC, therefore the two Vbecame merged into one, caedō. The semantic content of this V however can mean kill, massacre or break violently, break to pieces, abruptly etc. There is in CA also [in-qaD'Da], pre+V which means to leap upon, to prey, to assault abruptly, to savage. All this enters into the making of the LV. This last V belongs to a different paradigm and has in CA plosive /D/ not /d/ but the two have been merged in L, so that the merger here is on more than one level.

13.4 [Hamæ] and [hæ:na] in L :

The CA V [Hæmae:] means to heat, the CA V [hæ:na] means to be slight, easy, of no consequence, [a +haena] means to humiliate, to belittle, to insult. The V [hæm'mælæ] means to neglect, to take no notice of. These three V, belonging to three different paradigms in CA,

appear as one in L. In L humus is a cog of CA [Hæmæ'] which means heated or fermented mud, hence clay. The CA. V [hae:na] has undergone the change of the long Vl to /l/ in L so has [Hamæ:]. In consequence they have become phonetically closer to [haem'mælæ] which already carries part of the semantic components of [hæ:na], but L humus also denotes figuratively lowly, of humble origin, so that the L adj humilis has the meanings of low, lowly, slight and also base, humble insignificant, negligible, abject, mean.

13.5 The verbs [hae:na] and [Haemae:] in OE :

As we have stated above the L adj humilis comes from three different verbs whose phonetic shape and semantic content were rather similar. Of these three verbs how many exist in OE?

In OE only one V, the V [hæm'mæla] a three syl V is completely lost. There is no trace of its having ever existed, partly because it is of three syl, and these often get reduced, or lost, and partly because its phonetic shape has been given to anothe V (see 9.15).

The next two verbs [hae:na] and [Haemae:] fare better. [hæ:næ] appears as hynan, P henan, and from this V are found one N and two adj in OE, heān, CA cog [hayen] (notice how the Vl nucleus /aye/ is intrepreted as (ea) in OE, a thing one comes across in L also) the second is hwon, its CA cog is [huwn] (notice how the final diphthong in CA belonging to this pat has been changed into an initial cluster). The V means to humiliate, belittle insult, consider of no consequence in both languages. The adj [hayen] or heān means abject, low humble, the adj [huwn] means little, few of weak poor ability.

While we do not find the V [Hamae:] in OE nor its TV [Ham'ma] from which the L word humus is derived, we find the N ham (for derivation see 2.19) and also the V hamettan to provide with a home. This V is derived from the N ham (home). It is not derived from the original V [Haemae:] which means to protect and from which ham is derived.

From the TV [Hæm'ma] to heat, to ferment, comes the N [Humæh] in CA which appears in OE as fefer and in L as febris (/H/ : /f/ by AC, /h/ /b/ by CC). It is quite possible that this word has entered into OE through another language, possibly L and /b/ has been changed to /f/ as it often is in OE by AC. We find no other word from this V in OE and the

change of /f/ : /h/ is a tendency found more in L than in OE, where the opposite tendency predominates. (see 9.15).

The verbs chosen in the above examples are typical of the tendencies of each language. OE either retains a V or looses it, but L takes the phonetic shape of one V and places upon it the semantic content of two or more V which were originally close to it. It is not that no mergers take place in OE, but they are far less than those found in L, and the original verbs or nouns are retained more often than in L.

13.6 Verb and prefix in L :

L has lost over fourty percent of its original sounds, in consequence it had to improvise means of enlarging its vocabulary. One of these are the prefixes that modify the semantic content of verbs. These prefixes are not arbitrary inventions however, but either remnants of the old system of SS, (like L de-and re-) or words, adverbs or verbs that have been abbreviated and changed to prefixes, like pre-, which is in CA the adv /qabl/ (before). In L the initial /q/ has been deleted and /b/ changed to /p/, /l/ to /r/ by AC.

Most L V, as we have previously shown, have been reduced to two syl. When such a prefix is added the V becomes a three syl V. This new creation, or three syl V may have the sounds of an old CA one, but it should have different semantic content since it has been newly created, composed of a pref+V we come sometimes across such pref+V having the same phonetic shape and the same semantic content as old CA ones. How can this happen? Let us take one or two of these V and examine them.

L	CA	CA Sup	OE
rōdō corrōdō	[ЭaD' Da] [qaraDa]	[ЭaD'Dan] [qarDan]	bitan gnagan

In the first V above we have a case of tri cors. L has the cors /Э/ : /r/, /D/ : /d/ while OE has /Э/ : /b/, /D/ : /t/. Both L and OE have lost the GS, retaining only one stop.

In the second V L has the cors /q/ : /c/, while OE has /q/ : /g/ and /r/ : /n/ by EC.

The first V means to bite in both CA and OE, the second means to gnaw, to corrode, to waste gradually in both OE and CA. In L both rōdō, and corrōdō have the semantic content of to gnaw to corrode, to waste or eat gradually. Moreover corrōdō is analysed as com+ rōdō. If rōdō had originally the same semantic cotent as com+rōdō, of what use is the prefix? Then how can a new composite V have exactly the same semantic content and shape as an old one dependent on SS? What happened is that there were two V, not one, and that the semantic content of rōdō was 'to bite', as it is in OE and CA, but that with the prevelance of verbs beginning with com-, corrodo began to be analysed as com-rōdō and in consequence rōdō lost its individual indentity and became merged with it, acquiring the same semantic content.

Similarly the V defendo is sometimes analysed as defendo and sometimes analysed as de-fendo*. When it has the same semantic content as CA [dae:fæЭa] (long V changed to Vl +n and /Э/ to /d/ by EC. (to defend, to ward off to, push back).

When two V have the same semantic content and the same phonetic shape, one hesitates very much to attribute this to chance because CA verbs are made by careful choice on the level of SS, and that a new composition made by means of a prefix should acquire this very careful selection by mere accident is most unlikely. That is the reason that tracing such verbs proves them to be originals that have been interpreted as a new creation by analogy.

13.7 [bædæl] and [ba:Tel] merger in OE :

Just as we come across mergers in L, we come across such mergers in OE. Quite a few Mod Eng V are the result of mergers. While we cannot go into all the cases of merger here, we shall give a few examples of some of the more important ones.

The CA V [baTula] means to become bad, foul, to cease to be effective, to be wrong, false, erroneous. The CA V [bædaelá] means to change, its TV [bæd' daela] means to change for the worse, to alter, to barter, or exchange the better for the worse.

In OE we find baddel, which means hermaphrodite. We come rather often in OE on words which have a CA cog; but used in a particular sense, not in the general sense which is the sense of the V from which they are derived.

This is quiet feasible, and it should be expected. We notice that the difference between the two CA RV is only the medial consonant which is /t/ and /d/. These are often exchanged in OE by AC. If we change the medial /t/ to /d/ the V would be the same, if we add to this the semantic content of the TV, which is rather close to the one in /T/ we know how OE bæddel came to acquire the semantic content of [ba : Tel] which is the adj in CA. A merger has taken place, which gives the form the more useful and general semantic content of the RV in /T/, while it retains the phonetic charecteristics of the TV in /d'd/. (Mod Eng bad).

13.8 [raæ:] in OE :

In his Anglo Saxon Dictionary Dr. Bothworth says, (p. 782) "two verbs originally distinct seem to coalesce under this form." The form is rædan. It means to counsel, to give advice. In CA there are two V belonging to two different paradigms the first is [raæ'dæ] and the second is [raae:] the first means to lead, to be head of, to guide, hence to admonish, the second means to see. But in CA to see means also, figuratively, be of opinion, to believe, to perceive, to have such a vision of something. The CA Vl is replaced by a cons stop in OE (5.16) so that the final /e/ in CA is replaced by /d/ in the second V, while the Vl stop in medial position in the first V is assimilated to d. If we add to this the similarity in semantic content we perceive why the two verbs have coalesced.

In OE we find variations of semantic content, three different kinds of words derived from the merger of these two verbs, words from the first like ræde, (adj ready prompt) hence leading and rædels the final /l/ cors in CA with the final y or long Vl (counsel, consideration) from the second. while ræs- fæst adj, meaning wise, prudent may come from either.

13.9 The Comparative of Good :

The mergers given above were mergers that involved placing the semantic content of two or more forms in the shape of one. The mergers we shall examine below are mergers that make the positive and the comparative degrees of adjectives from two different roots.

The CA verb [gae:dae] may be used in two senses. It can mean to be good, excellent, of fine quality, or it can mean to be generous kind, munificient. In this second sense it is usually followed by the particle [ɜæla].

In Consequence three adjectives have been derived from this verb, the adj [gæyed] (good, fine) the adj [gæwae:d] (generous, munificient) and the adj [gae:d] (great, grand, glorious).

In L this last adj appears as grand-us. Its CA cog when the inflectional ending is applied is [gae:dun] L has changed the long Vl to /r/ by dissimilation to /n/, then brought the final /n/ to medial position, and gave the adj the inflectional ending typical of L N and Adj.

In OE we do not find any of these adj but we do find the N [guwd] from this V. In OE it is gōd, and like many OE forms it is used as both N and adj. Since it is originally a N it has no comparative. In consequence it was given a comparative from another root. The comparative of OE comes from the V [baTira] in CA. The V means to desire more than good, to belitttle what is good and seek more. The N is [baTar]. It is this N as betera) which appears as the comparative of gōd in OE. Semantically it is a degree or more above good, but in CA it has acquired a pejorative connotation, for to desire more than good is to be arrogant or too covetous.

13.10 The Comparative of Bad :

We have given (13.6 above) the derivation of OE baddel (Mod Eng bad) as we have shown is a N in CA. Moreover, it is a merger in OE, so that it has no comparative. Like good, its comparative is derived from another V. The V [sae:ae*] in CA means to be bad, evil, of poor quality. The difference between it and [baTula] is that the latter implies something that was good but has been spoiled or become useless or bad, while [sæ:æ*] and [saeyee*] the adj, mean something or someone who is bad by nature. Semantically it may be considered a degre or degrees worse, since its very essence is bad.

From the V [sæ:æ*] comes the derived V [saewaae*] (to make what is already bad worse) and from this V comes OE wyrse. The adv has undergone metathesis to bring /w/ to initial position. (9.11).

13.11 Bonus and - melior :

The L adj bonus has as cog in CA the adj [ba:r] or [ba:run]. The medial /r/ has been deleted and replaced by the final /n/. This adj means in CA benevolent, kind, benign, munificient. In L it has acquired some of

the semantic content of 'good' together with its original semantic content, which appears in some of the forms derived from it like 'benevolent' and 'beneficient'.

Although it has a comparative in CA, its comparative in L melior is derived from another root, from the V [mæyæzæ]. To be of superior, excellent quality, to be distinguished by excellence or fine quality. Cors /y/ : /l/ and /z/ : /r/. It may be considered semantically degrees above good.

13.12 Malus and Peior :

In CA the V [mæ:læ] means to lean on one side, hence to be biased, crooked. The adj [mæ:el] whose cog is L malus means to lean on one side, to be crooked, not upright, useless, of poor or weak condition. In L it means to be deformed, depraved, criminal, as well as some of the meanings found in CA.

Its comparative comes from another RV. It comes from the V [ba:ra] to become useless, unfertile, of poor quality, waste. In CA it is [bæ:er] in L pē ior. The L comp has taken on some of the semantic content of the positive degree, so that it has the meaning of worse or less effective.

From this same V comes OF barein which appears in Mod Eng as 'barren'.

CHAPTER XIV

ON CLUSTERS IN L, CA AND OE

14.1 Clusters in CA :

There are absolutely no initial clusters in CA, neither in the unmarked form of the RV nor in any of the forms derived from it. The reason is that CA is based on SS where each sound has its significance apart, and in consequence the first sound, the most important one in any word, that first item of communication, is allowed free and unequivocal contours. (for the cause of this in comunication theory see Gleason 1969).

14.2 Clusters in L and OE :

The fact that there are no initial clusters in CA implies that these clusters have been created in L and OE at a later date, at a subsequent stage of the language after the SS that it was built on had become no longer significant. Initial clusters in L or OE are not random creations however, but are strictly rule governed, as we shall see below. Any word in L or OE is governed by two contending overall rules. The first demands that the word retain as much as possible its shape in order to retain its identity and not to become submerged, while the second demands that it conform to the rules of the language to which it belongs. Whether a word changes or not and how far depends on its original shape and the new rules of the language it belongs to. Why words change and how far within a certain period of time is a most interesting study, but we cannot deal with it in any detail in this limited outline. In this chapter we give some of the rules that govern and restrict clusters as well as a few examples in order to perceive the overall movement of consonants in L and OE which we shall discuss in the next chapter.

The table opposite shows that there are far more clusters in OE than in L, and that favourite sounds are used more in clusters than less congenital ones. We notice for example that there are many clusters having /h/ in OE, where /h/ is a favourite sound, and none at all in L. And that /p/, a sound that has been introduced later in OE has no clusters with /w/ as the original sounds of the language have, because such clusters were produced by the morphological rules of the language before the introduction of /p/.

The semi-Vl /l m n r/ do not occur as initial sounds in a cluster in either L or OE

The stops /c g p t/ do not occur as second sound in a cluster unless the first is /s/ while /d/ does not occur as second sound even if the first is /s/. The fricatives /h θ f s/ do not occur as second sound in a cluster.

Table of OE and L clusters in initial position

OE	L	OE	L	.OE	L
bl	bl	gn	gn	sn	-
br	br	gr	gr	sp	sp
cl	cl	hl	-	st	st
cn	-	hn	-	str	str
cr	cr	hr	-	sw	-
dr	-	hw	-	-	tm
dw	-	pl	pl	tr	tr
fl	fl	pr	pr	θ r	-
fr	fr	sl	sl	θ w	-
gl	gl	sm	-	wl	-
cw	-			wr	-

In the table above /Tm/ occurs in L in the N Tmolus and the adj derived from it Tmolites. It does not conform with the main tendency of the language to cluster stops with lighter sounds. /m/ is a rather ponderous sound to pronouce and /t/ does not cluster with softer sounds like /l/ and /n/. The word must have come from Gr where /tm/ and /tl/ are quiet common, though it is not recorded as such.

In OE there are the clusters (yc yf yl ylp ymb yn ypl ypp yθ ys yt ytm).

Since /y/ is often written in place of /i/ or long /i/ in OE we have considered it as a Vl or semi-Vl here also. As the above clusters reveal its clustering habits are closer to those of Vl than of consonants.

Let us take one word here however and see whether this /y/ was originally of consonantal status. The word is ylp and it means elephant, L elephnatus. In CA the word is [fiyl] it comes from the 2 syl V]fae: la] which means to grown of huge or great size. It is often preceded by the def. art to show that it is a particular being that has grown huge. It is [al fiylu]. L has merged this def art with the N, then changed the final /l/ to /n/ by dissimilation with the initial one. The L word has the fem pat ending in (at) in CA then given the L noun ending-us.

OE has simply rotated the sounds of this word bringing /y/ to initial position and /f/ to final position. Once in final position /f/ was changed to /p/ as it sometimes is in OE. Now in the original N this /y/ was part of a diphthong it was not of consonantal status.

OE cw is not the same as L qu (see for qu 6.11 for cw 6.10) we have omitted from the table opposite loan words from Gr that have entered into L, since the clusters they contain do not belong to the language.

14.3 Clusters in L, OE and Gr. :

From the above table we notice an interesting fact. It is that although L and Gr are considered closer to each other than L and Germanic languages, the restrictions upon clusters we have given above are shared by L and OE but not by L and Gr. Where clusters are concerned L is closer to Germanic languages than to Gr, although some of the clusters allowed in OE are allowed in Gr but not in L, like (sm). On the whole OE shares many of he restrictions found in L as we have shown above, while in Gr numerous clusters are allowed that are not allowed in either L or OE.

If initial clusters are governed by the rules which select their quality to a considerable extent, and if there is an overall rule, we have met more than once before, that decrees that language should be more compact, this rule is in fact one of the main reasons for the movements of clustering, how can a word conform to this rule and yet maintain its identity? In other words how does an OE or L word look after undergoing clustering?

14.4 The V [qab'bala] :

Let us take a practical example. The CA V [qab'bæla] (to kiss, or embrace). Given the clustering rules mentioned above, how would it look in OE?

The first thing one should expect is the change of /q/ by either /c/ or /h/. Since /c/ is the more frequent, let us assume that /q/ will become /c/. /c/ is a stop and so is /b/. Both would not occur as the second sound in a cluster in OE, so we should try to cluster /c/ with the final /l/ . Very well then, we have /cl/. After clustering /cl/ there remains /b/ in final position. /b/ in final position is often changed to /p/ in OE, and the OE infinitive has the shape of the CA supine. What we are looking for is then clipan* but the V has a GS in CA, now let us add this GS. The V becoms clippan*.

The V we have in OE is clyppan, because in OE /i/ is often written /y/. It means in OE to kiss or embrace as it does in CA.

14.5 [Burhæh] :

Let us take a CA word and see if we can recognise it in L. The N [burhæh] (a short period of time). There are two /h/ sounds in this word, an inflectional /h/ which L often deletes and another medial one. Since there are two /h/ sounds, we shall assume that L has deleted the final /h/, the medial one is often changed to /w/ by CC. But Mod L has changed /w/ to/v/ so that if we are dealing with Mod L we look for /v/, if we are dealing with Old L we look for /w/. /b/ can form a cluster with /r/ after it, so it is most probable that it becomes /br v/. In fact we do find an adv brevi in L and it does mean a little while. We find also an adj brevis in L, and it means any small or little thing. Has it been derived from brevi? In CA there is the word [barwah] which comes from the V [bara:] to sharpen. It means little bits left over, splinters, or shrapnels, hence any little thing.

Since L has changed the medial /h/ in [burhah] to /w/, the two words have become phonetically very close. Since they were already semantically close, a merger has taken place. (in Mod Eng the word is brief).

14.6 The V [bar' Ta ɘa] :

Let us take a slightly more difficult case. How would the V [bar'Taɘa] look in Mod Eng. The difficulty here is that the verb has four consonants, two of which are not found in OE, moreover the main stress falls upon the last cons of the first syl. It is a rather strong stress, since this is a 4 cons V. (20.3).

Let us deal with the more difficult /϶/ first (1). In final position it is either deleted or removed to initial position and changed into a cons stop. We may expect two forms then if the word exists. It is either [barTa*], or assuming that the cons stop is favourite in such constructions in OE, a form having /g/+ [barTa]*. We do not find the first form and /g/ would not cluster with /b/ so we regulate /b/ to final position and see what we can do with the medial cluster. There is a main stress upon the /r/ so it is unlikely to be deleted. In OE such a cluster is usually turned into a geminette by the assimilation of one sound to the other as in (6-7) /T/ is not found in OE and the main stress is found on the /r/, so we would expect /r/ to remain as a geminette. A geminette having /r/ in medial position is a rare thing in OE, in fact /l/ is the usual cors in such cases. What we should expect is a form having /ll/ in medial position, /g/ in initial position and /b/ possibly changed to /p/ in final position. The V is to **gallop**. In fact this is what we have been looking for. It has the semantic content as well as the phonetic cors of the CA form. The word has not enterd into Mod Eng through OE, as we assumed above, but through OF, but because it is of Germanic origin the rules we have used to discover it still applied. Moreover the Mod Eng form has double / ll / which is what we should expect, while in OF there is only /l/. This phenomenon is really worth investigating. It is a phenomenon one comes across again and again. We find the Mod Eng form often closer to the ancient CA one than the source from which the word has arrived. It is a phenomenon that requires and deserves much more attention than the present work can encompass.

14.7 Tracing /ri ϶æ: ϶/ in Modern English :

Let us take a word that looks difficult and see if it is in fact untracable. Let we take word [ri ϶ae: ϶]. We shall give the reader the semantic content from the beginning, so that he joins in the search. It means mob, ruffians, a gathering of disorderly lower class people. It comes from the V [ra϶'϶a]. How would it look like in Mod Eng?

We know that /϶/ in the vicinity of /r/ is changed to /b/ by dissimilation (8.20). So we should expect something like [ribae:b*]. But Mod Eng has acquired a compact form, so that the two /b/ will become a geminette [ribbae:]* it will have to be. But again a long final Vl in Mod Eng is a rare thing, it is usually changed to /l/ as it often is in L and OE. Do we have "ribble"* in Mod Eng? We do not, but have

"rabble". The initial Vl is /a/ which denotes that the word has been derived directly from the RV above. It is often marked in the dictionary as of obscure origin, when in CA it belongs to a large and respectable family, belonging to a long V paradigm.

14.8 Syllable division in CA :

In order to understand the syl division and the clusters that occur in CA one has to remember that this is a language based on SS. Each phoneme has its significance on this level and therefore the whole language is oriented to give the maximum of clarity.

There are no initial clusters in CA. Each consonant precedes a Vl and governs the Vl it precedes. If two consonants occur in medial position, then they are separated by the stress pattern and the syl division. A single consonant between two Vl forms part of the following syl.
Ex : [muhændisoun] is divided mu-han-di-soun (engineers)

If this word were in L, it would be divided in the same manner, for L has kept this manner of syl division and Mod Fr has taken it from L. (see G. price p. 27).

14.9 Final Clusters in CA :

In CA there is only one pat that has final clusters. It is pat one, given before, CVCC. We notice that it is very compact and that it cannot become more so. Since it is the only pattern of this form in CA, it is easily distinguished from other patterns and the native speaker is aware of the significance of this final cluster. As mentioned earlier it is the pattern that has been preserved most in L and OE because it fits in with the new rules of these languages. (see 11.3 for examples).

While most of the time the position of the consonants is preserved intact, it sometimes undergoes metathesis in both OE and L. In L rarely, in OE more frequently. This metathesis turns the final cluster into an initial one.
Ex : CA [Saxr] OE scar, CA [qorbun], L creber (rock, adv near).

Since the pat is already compact, this change of a final cluster to an initial one, then the formation of many new initial clusters, suggests that initial clusters have become more favoured in OE.

14.10 Medial Consonants in CA :

In CA there are no medial clusters. In a two syl word, if two cons occur together in medial position, then they are separated by the stress pat which regulates each to a different syl, and places a transition in between, not quiet as marked as that between words, but clear enough just same.

Ex : [bercaeh] has the stress pat /21 + 2/

The main stress falls upon the last cons of the first syl. How does this word look in Mod Eng?

CA	Wes Ger.	OE	Mod Eng
[bercaeh]	bróka*	bróc	brook

If we compare the forms above, we get a paradigm of the passage of the word through time.

In L and in Mod Fr the same syl division given above occurs quiet freqeuntly and stress falls upon the first syl in a two syl word as in CA.

Ex : CA [burcae:n], L vulcan (volcano). In this cog form the syl division and the stress pat is the same. Similarly in Mod Fr. serpon, CA [quƐbae:n] there is the same syl division and stress pat. The difference is that the final long Vl in CA, which is the mark of this pat, has been shortened in L and Mod Fr.

Supposing we take a word that has a final cluster and give it one more syl, an inflectional ending (which is unpronounced very often in CA) and see where the stress falls. Without the inflectional ending the stress falls upon the initial cons in this pat

Ex : CA [burg] [bur-gon] OE burgon (tower)

When the inflectional ending is added, the word is divided into two syl and the final cluster, becoming a medial one is divided as seen above. When an Arab wants to stress a word or emphasize a point, he uses the full form having the inflectional ending. The native speaker does it instictively, but we can see that this gives each consonant clear and separate pronunciation.

In L this word, would be pronouced in the same manner where syl division is concerned, and so would most medial clusters. The exception is when a stop occurs followed by /r/ or /l/, in such cases they are pro-

nouced as a cluster. This diversion from the rule may have started because of the heavy reliance of L on prefixes. When an initial cluster is preceded by a prefix, it becomes a medial cluster.

Initial clusters, as we have noted before are made of a stop or fricative followed by a semi-VI.

Ex : declinare comscribō

Such words retain their original syl division, and others may have followed by analogy. In OE it is not easy to tell where the syl division falls, but we assume that in earliest times it must have been like that of L and CA, so that burgon or burges must have been pronouced bur-ges and bur-gon.

14.11 Final clusters in L and OE :

In L final clusters are very few in compartison with those found in OE, moreover L has the same rule of syl division as CA given above, so that when the inflectional ending is added the final consonants are divided.

In OE very heavy clustering can occur in final position, but we hesitate to accept many of these clusters for a number of reasons.

A word may be pronounced in more than one way and written in more than one, so that what appears as a cluster may be an omission by a scribe.

Ex: mage*p*, mag*p* CA [marae'h] (maiden in OE, woman in CA) cors /ae'/:/g/, /*p* /: /h/.

It is most probable that such words are pronounced with a VI between /g/ and /*p*/ even if it is sometimes omitted.

In words like bricg CA [cubriy] which have undergone both metathesis and heavy clustering the final cluster may have been divided into syllables as in L and CA once the inflectional ending was applied, so that it would be pronounced bric-ge.

A word like hryre has as cog in CA [haeriyr-un]. It comes from the V [har'ra] (to fall down, to collapse). The medial /y/ may have been pronounced as a diphthong or a long /i/. When the inflectional -es is added it may have been pronounced hryr-es, or most probably as in CA hry-res. The subject requires more research.

The second thing one notices is that the main tendency of final clusters in both L and OE is the reverse of that found in initial clusters. While initial clusters begin by a stop or a fricative followed by a semi-Vl, final clusters begin by a semi-Vl followed by a stop or a fricative. In L this heavy clustering is avoided by recourse to deletion whenever necessary. In OE the pat C semi-Vl V semi-VlC has become very common indeed.

It depends to a great extent on the original consonants the word had, for the new shape of any word is a compromise between its original shape and the new pattern of clustering of OE.

While OE clusters and in some cases deletes severely, L very often retains the patterns of CA but gives them new semantic content, that is the reason it is sometimes more difficult to trace a word in L than in OE.

14.12 L Circa :

What cognate should it have in CA? If the word were an OE word, we would say it could be [caracah] (jar, pot). In fact in OE the word crocca is the cog of CA [caracah] which has undergone the change discussed in (12.2). L circa means circle, but if it is pronounced clearly before an Arab, he would believe that it could mean pot or jar. How did it come to have that form? if we compare :

L circa CA [Halqah] OE hlenca

What has happened is that L has changed the initial /H/ to /c/ by CC and final /q/ to /c/ by AC, while retaining the same pattern in more compact form. The pat belongs to all fem N in CA but the phonemes have been changed, thus regulating the word to another RV, hence new semantic content. The OE form, as we see above, is much closer to the CA one as sound, while L is closer as pattern. In order to preserve the original sounds, as much as possible, together with more compact form, OE has had to cluster many together. In order to preserve the original patterns together with more compact form L has had to delete. This is the main tendency in each language but we do find clusters in L and we find much deletion in OE particularly where sounds not found in the language occur. L may also change the category. The word above is an adv (16.10).

The RV is [Halaqa] to turn round in a circle, to adhere to in circular manner, hence to connect the parts of a circle together. From this comes the semantic content of OE hlenca (line).

And from the same RV comes OHG hals (throat) CA [halq]. OHG has retained the ancient order of the CA pat but changed the final /q/ to /s/ by EC. And also OE hring (ring in OE, but earning in CA). Its CA cog is [Halaqon]. This word has both initial and final clusters in OE. The pat given above. In L there are numerous words from this RV (see dictionary) but not one of them has such heavy clustering.

14.13 The changes that a word has to undergo to acquire the CCVCC pat :

If the clustering rules of the language decree certain restrictions, what are the effects of these restrictions on OE words. We have seen above that the pat CCVCC or sometimes CCVC has becomes a common pattern in OE although it does not exist in CA. What changes does a CA word have to undergo, if it is to acquire this pattern? The changes a CA word undergoes depend basically on its original pattern.

We shall examine below the kinds of operations that a word has to undergo, if it is to acquire the above pattern :

1. Some words have to go through very little change indeed because their pattern is already close to the new one.
   Ex : CA [gurm] OE grim, CA [Saxr] OE scar
   In the words above the change is merely metathesis of a Vl from second to third position.

2. Not all words change so little however. If we examine the examples below :
   Ex : [qanasa] [qansaen] OE cnyssan (to beat, hit squeeze, hunt)

   Here the change is also metathesis of a Vl to third position together with the change of the medial stress in the CA word to a GS.

3. If we look at the example below :
   [fælæqa] OE clćofan (to cleave split) CA sup [faelqan]
   [læ∂qah] OE [cli∂a], a plasten

   In the above examples the OE infinitive which is the cog of the CA sup. has undergone metathesis to bring the final cons to medial position to form a cluster with the semi-Vl which was in medial position or in initial position in N of No. 2.

4. If we examine the forms containg /ɜ/, we would find most interesting changes.

Ex : 1. [qaraɜa] OE cnucian CA sup [qarɜan] (to knock)

2. [ɜæqada] OE cnittan CA sup [ɜaqdaen] (to knot, or knit)

3. [ɜælaqa] OE clingan CA sup [ɜalaqan] (to cling, or hang to)

4. [ɜægana] OE cneadan CA sup [ɜagnan] (to knead dough)

The OE forms above have the same pat beginning with a stop followed by a semi-VL. In CA this is not the order. Each of the above forms has not undergone the same metathesis as the one preceding it but the changes that enable it to obtain this pattern.

1. In 1 /ɜ/ has become /c/ by CC in order to achieve EC with /c/ because there is already another semi-Vl in this word.

2. In 2 /ɜ/ has become /n/ by AC since there are two stops in this word.

3. In 3 /ɜ / has become /c/ to achieve EC with the final /g/ which is /q/ in CA.

4. In 4 /ɜ/ has become /d/ by CC and has undergone metathesis to appear in medial position in order to allow /g/ as /c/ to appear in initial position and achieve this pattern.

What happens in a word that has two semi-Vl?
CA [læmæɜæ:n] L lumen OE gleaman [læmɜæn]

All the forms above come from the same RV [lamaɜa] (to gleam, glitter) L has deleted the final /ɜ/ and has kept only a final /n/, the /n/ that follows inflection in CA.

The OE infinitive, the cognate of the CA sup has undergone metathesis to bring /ɜ/ after changing it to /g/ to initial position to achieve this pattern, thus counterbalancing the semi-Vl by a stop :

Again if we compare :

CA [qoɜbarah] OE clympre L glaeba (clod, piece of earth)

This word has both /q/ and /ɜ/. OE has changed /q/ to /c/ by AC, and /b/ to /p/, then the word has undegone metathesis to bring the final /n/ (found in Proto Ger as m) to medial position in order to counterbalance the initial and final clusters. What form has /ɜ/ taken in this word? In this word /ɜ/ has conveniently become an /l/ as, we have seen it do in (9.3).

In L /q/ has become an initial /g/ retaining its position, /ɜ/ has become a Vl as it often does in L, particlarly in words where there is already one stop and /r/ as /l/ by AC has been removed to initial position to form a cluster with /g/.

This pat which must have been triggered by the sounds not found in OE has become a favourite, in fact we do find it in words where all the sounds exist in OE, though less often.

Ex : CA [šurbæh] OE broth OF soup

OE has brought /b/ to initial position by FC and /š/ as *p* to final position, clustering /r/ with /b/. OF has followed the rules of L changing /s/ to /š/ and /b/ to /p/, /r/ has been changed to a long Vl or diphthong. Here we find a tendency (retained in Mod Fr) to change semi-Vl /l r/ to long Vl or diphthongs. It is the opposite tendency to the L and OE one (5.26) which changed long -Vl to semi-Vl, but there is NC between the two, so that one should expect to meet such cors in cognate languages.

CHAPTER XV

Topology of the movement of Consonants in the three languages

15.1 The position of Cons in CA :

In this chapter we shall examine the different percentages of the occurence of each consonant in the three languages in initial position. The percentages given in the table opposite represent the occurence of each of the consonants approximately, separately and in initial position only, nervetheless they help us in tracing the movement of these consonants in each language and of comparing between the increase, decrease, stability or disappearance of each consonant in the three languages. They afford a more clear overall picture. This chapter is not meant to go into detail on the movement of any single phoneme, nor in detail about its correspondences, a thing that we have been doing in the preceding chapters, here we shall step back in order to view the movement of all the phonemes in relation to each other and to trace in outline these movements.

In CA consonants have remained static. They have remained stationary because they are committed to the level of SS and are held in paradigms by the verb paradigms on the morphological level. No altering of phonemes and no metathesis can occur in CA, except in a very few cases for the sake of facilation of pronunciation but the original form is always present and retrivable, so they need not concern us here. On the level of SS the position of a phoneme in a word is relevant to the semantic content just as the position of a word in a sentence in Mod Eng is relevant to the semantic content.

In this chapter we shall show some of the functions of certain sounds on the level of SS to show why they occur frequently or moderately. But each of these phonemes is dealt with more fully in the chapter on SS.

15.2 The importance of initial position :

Initial position is of supreme importance. That is the reason we are concentrating on initial position here. But one must not forget that most words are made of two or more consonants and that each contributes to the general meaning. So that a word may begin by a strong sound and end by a weak one, if the semanitc content requires it. Let us take one word as example. The V [Da-ou-la].

Table Showing The Occurence Of Phonemes in Percentages (to the first decimal approximately)

	CA	OE	L
1	n 7.5	w 16.4	p 14.5
2	r 7.1	s 14.8	c 11.4
3	э 6.6	h 10.5	s 11.2
4	H 6.6	b 6.2	t 8.8
5	q 6.1	*p* 6.1	m 8.7
6	S 6.	f 6.1	v 7.3
7	w 5.9	c 5.5	f 7.2
8	x 5.5	m 5.1	d 6.4
9	g 4.2	l 5.	l 6.2
10	b 4.1	t 5	n 4.3
11	m 4.0	g 4.6	r 4.1
12	l 4.0	d 3.5	q 4
13	d 3.8	š 3.2	h 2.7
14	f 3.8	r 2.9	g 2.1
15	c 3.5	n 2.5	b .9
16	š 3.5	y 1.6	
17	h 3.4	p.9	
18	s 3.1		
19	R 2.5		
20	T 2.5		
21	D 1.5		
22	t 1.2		
23	z 1.0		
24	∂.9		
25	θ.9		
26	y.5		
27	∂h.3		

It is a three syl. V. The initial sound /D/ is one of the strongest in the language and has a weaker antithesis /d/. Such sounds, that is strong sounds that have an antithesis, are used by the SS of the language to symbolize contrast, or to give two degrees, a weak and a strong of the same action. The next syl is occupied by a diphthong. The diphthong takes the place of a cons+Vl. And on the level of SS as well as the morphological level it is considered as such because of the position it occupies. /ou/ is a pursing of the lips, symbolic of diminishing, shrinking, growing smaller. The final cons is /l/ a flap, a stretching of the tongue. Therefore it is symbolic of extending, stretching, elongation. If we put the semantic significance of the three sounds together we understand that something was strong or big but that has grown smaller or less gradually in an extended period of time. Therefore something wasted or something that pines away. The OE cog of this V is dwinan, and in Mod Eng it is (to dwindle).

15.3 Cons groups in CA :

There are 27 cons and one Vl stop in CA which form 28 sounds of consonanal status. Each has particular significance, and each group of sounds that have similar phonetic features have similar (never identical) symbolic singificance. In this chapter we shall divide the sounds of CA according to their general significance as groups, denoting occasionally the symbolic value, when required to show why certain sounds are used more than others.

Group one : The static, the slow, the negative, the soft and luxurious, in this group there are only three sounds /n ɜ m/

Group two : Strong, powerful, dramatic, dominant, violent action. This group contains /q T D S H ∂h R/ each of these sounds has an antithesis for softer, normal action.

Group three : This group has intelligent, conscious, moderate, clever temperate, normal everyday actions. It contains /d t h b r w g l f s š z θ ∂ y c x / and Vl stops.

15.4 The static, the dynamic the moderate :

If we look at the table opposite we find that the sound which has highest frequency is /n/, and that the sound which occupies third position and has very high frequency in CA is /ɜ/. Why is this so? These two sounds

with /m/ form the first group. Of the three sounds /n m/ are nasals while /ɜ/ is nasalized. In such sounds, the air passage to the mouth is obstructed and air passes through the nose. On the level of SS this quality signifies, impediment, hence slowness, negation and opposition, or a static condition. The three sounds have to do duty opposite the group that signifies strong, dramatic action and the group that symbolizes quick repetitive movement or vibration, these are mainly fricatives. That is the reason they are used far more often individually than other sounds. While the two other groups have higher percentages cumulatively or in unision.

Group one	=	18%	Static
Group two	=	21.5 %	very powerful or violent
Group three	=	59.5%	moderate

The above percentages reveal that sounds which signify moderate actions form together the biggest group; while the very strong and the static are rather close to each others. Is this a peculiarity of CA or is this a reflection of actions in real life? Let us take a sample from the other languages under discussion, using full verbs instead of sounds. Our sample of a hundred verbs from each language will be only approximate and tenuous as evidence, nevertheless it might be relevant.

	L	OE	Mod Eng	CA
Group one	2%	4%	9%	2%
Group two	18%	31%	16%	19%
Group three	80%	65%	75%	79%

One must take into account that this sample is of verbs while the CA sample above is of sounds only, and each sound is combined with others as shown previously. Nevertheless the tendencies of language are clear. The moderate group forms by far the largest group in all four languages.

It is intersting that L and CA are very close to each other in these percentages inspite of the very great differences that have taken place in L and that OE has a far larger number of verbs of strong or violent action. Could it be that the Anglo-Saxons led a rougher life than other peoples? Modern English has a larger number of static verbs than any of the older languages. Could it be that people lead a more sedate life in modern times? Possibly this is the case, but much more research has to be made,

on many languages of different origins, whose peoples have different habits before such questions could be decisively answered.

The point that we desire to demostrate here is that static sounds are used more in CA because they are fewer in numbers, not because there are more static verbs.

15.5 /n/ in CA, L and OE :

While /n/ occupies first position in CA, for the reasons given above, its position in L and OE is much lower. This is due to the clustering rules of L and OE. In these languages /n/ and semi-Vl generally cannot occur as initial sound in a cluster.

In consequence we find /n/ very often as second sound in an initial cluster, or in medial position carrying the main stress, or in final position (in L and sometimes in OE) or as first sound in a final cluster. It occurs quite often in fact, since it is a soft sound that is used to facilate pronunciation, and also because of other morphological changes (see 12.5) but not in initial position.

15.6 / ɜ/ and its correspondents :

/ɜ/ is a sound that depicts soft, rounded contours, since it is inchoate and has no sharp, distinct features. It is the second of the three in CA, but has disappeared from L and OE. In these languages it is replaced by a variety of sounds /c n g t h d b l/ as well as Vl. It depends on the word in which it occurs and the pattern the word has to conform to, as well as the environment of /ɜ/ inside this word (see 8.18).

15.7 /m/ :

The last of the three is produced by closure of the lips, in consequence it is often used to symbolize finality, ending, close. We notice that in CA it has usage very close to that of /b/ which stands for beginning (opening of lips) and rather close to /f/ which stands for opening, making way.

In L and OE it occupies a higher position than that it occupies in CA. This should be expected, since many of the words which were preceded by /ma-/ as a prefix in CA have merged it with the stem in L and OE. In

consequence it occurs often in initial position, just as it occurs very frequently as a prefix in CA, in initial position, in the cognate forms of these words.

15.8 /r/ :

After /n/ comes /r/ in CA. This precedence of /r/ in CA is due to its value as the symbol of repetition. It is a strong trill in CA (much stronger than Mod Eng /r/) and the repetitive movement of the tongue in its production is therefore the symbol of repetition. When it is the first cons in a verb, this denotes that the action is repetitive or continuous.

In L and OE it appears in initial position far less than it appears in CA because of the clustering habits of these languages. /r/ cannot appear as the first sound in a cluster.

In a few cases, mainly in L it is removed to initial position by metathesis when it is not in a cluster. When it appears in initial position and not in a cluster it can still perform its ancient function of symbolizing repetition, even in modern languages. There are many such words in both Mod Eng and French. (see 7.24).

15.9 Cons /H/ and /h/ :

The phoneme that occupies fourth position in CA after / n r ɜ/ is /H/. /H/ is the symbol of sharpness. It makes a sharp, deep friction in the throat and is therefore the symbol of the sharp, the keen, the trenchant. In consequence it is used very often to denote an edge, a boundary, action and movement that leave a scar. Its nearest cors is the fricative /h/ the symbol of the weak, the faint, the expiring, /H/ is used very often in initial position in CA since it marks differences, edges, boundaries. While /h/ which represents weakness occurs far more often in final position.

In OE both sounds are written as /h/, so that OE /h/ has really the count of both sounds together. It occupies a higher position in OE than /H/ in CA because it is a merger of the two sounds and because it has become a favourite replacing other fricatives. Words containg /h/ in medial or final position in CA undergo metathesis in OE to bring it to initial position (see 9.13).

In L /h/ occurs only 1.2% in initial position partly because it in often deleted, and partly because it is often changed to other fricatives, while /H/ is changed frequently to /w/ (which was in turn changed to V) or other fricatives and sometimes it is replaced by /c/ by cc.

15.10 Cons /q/ :

The phoneme /q/ occupies fifth position in CA. It is the symbol of strong, dramatic action vs softer, finer, less violent /c/. Since it is pronounced far back in the throat (a uvular sound) and produces a rounded movement against the throat, it is often the symbol of the rounded, or the rising as a dome, or round object, against the flat movement that /c/ sometines symbolizes.

There are over twenty verbs which denote cutting in strong and vigorous ways, all these begin with /q/.

/q/ does not exist in L or OE. In L it is replaced by its nearest cors /c/ and /g/ and in OE it is replaced by some of its corespondents mainly /c d g h/.

Its antithesis /c/ occurs very often in L and occupies a high position in OE not only because it replaces /q/ but because it is a cover term in these language for a number of missing phonemes.

In L it is a cover term for /q h H x ȝ/ and in OE it takes the place of /q x ȝ/ an in a few cases /h H/ also.

15.11 /s/ and /S/ :

In CA there are two sibilants. /s/ which may be considered an allophone of OE and L /s/, and /S/ which is palatalized, and does not exist in L and OE. /s/ is the symbol of smooth, sleek movements, while /S/ is the symbol of strong, stark, stern, ones. The two sounds have merged in L and OE, that is the reason they have higher position than CA /s/. But if we add /s/ + /S/ in CA we would get a percentage almost as high as that of L and OE.

The second reaosn why it occupies a higher position in L and OE is the clustring rules of the language. /s/ is th only phoneme that can occupy initial position in clusters of three sounds,moreover we find many words where /s/ occurs in medial or final position in CA having /s/ in

initial position in L and OE by metathesis. In L other fircatives /š θ h/ are often replaced by /s/ since the first two have been lost and the last is sparingly used.

15.12 /w/ :

The semi Vl /w/ when used as a consonant in initial position in CA is of the first ten. This is because in the SS of the language it represents augmentation or increase (pursing then widening the lips) since any quality may be augmented, good or bad, great or small, /w/ occurs fairly often. Although medial /w/ as infix belongs to the morphological level, it very often adds the quality of augmentation to the semantic content of the verbs derived from the RV by its means.

Ex : [dæ:mæ] (to last) [dæwaæmæ] to last, persevering.

When it occurs as part of a diphthong it does not. In OE it is used very often, in fact it has become the first sound in initial position for reasons given in (9.11).

In L it has been changed to /v/ in Cicero's time. But L/v/ is really a cover term for /w/ as well as other fricatives /H f R/.

15.13 /x/ :

In CA /x/ is a strong fricative, the strongest after /S/. It expresses strong vibration on the level of SS. But since the sound comes from the back of the throat outwards and is slighly nasalized it express something foul, evil, dirty or ruined. Until today the native speaker uses it alone as an exclamation denoting disgust.

It has been lost in L and OE and is very often replaced by its correspondents /h c/ in L and by /c d h f/ in OE.

15.14 The cons /g/ :

The second strongest stop after /q/ in CA is /g/. While /q/ can express violent, dramatic sudden action /g/ is of more even nature. It expresses strong but more moderate and deliberate action. It is the symbol of putting two things or more together, hence accumulation, of making a mass. It occurs among the first ten in CA, while in L it is used very sparingly because it is often replaced by /c/. While /c/ occupies a much higher position in L than in CA, /g/ to the contrary occupies a much

lower position. So that while words which denote collection begin by /g/ in both CA and OE, like [gæmæ϶a] OE cog gatherian (to gather) in L they often begin with /c/ like L cumulus, CA [gamal] a great mass together. The N [gamal] means camel in CA, while its cog cumulus means great mass in L, hence mountain, hill.

In OE /g/ has approximately the same percentage as CA. This is because we have not counted a large number of verbs that begin with ge-in OE. These are not counted because they belong to the morphological level. (They have undergone the change of /ya/ to /ge/ see 7.5).

The phonemes /b m d f c/ occupy medial position and have approximately the same percentage in CA. /m/ and /b/ are each others antithesis, and /f d/ are also each others antithesis in certain respects.

15.15 The cons /b/ :

/b/ is a stop, it is produced by opening of the lips and is therefore the symbol of beginning in the SS of CA. While /m/ is produced by closing the lips, it is the symbol of closure or finality in CA. Both occupy a medial position in the langauge.

In OE /b/ occurs far more often than in CA because it replaces other sounds line /϶/, because it is often removed from final to initial position, and because some words which originally has bi- as a prefix have merged it with the stem.

In L to the contrary it is used very sparingly because /p/ has taken its place in many words.

/m/ has a higher percentage in both OE and L than in CA because in both L and OE the prefix /ma/ has merged with many word and become the initial sound instead of a prefix. In L there is another reason also. It is that /b/ is sometimes replaced by /m/ in L and sometimes /n/ also is preplaced by /m/. In OE /m/ is often deleted in medial or final position, but rarely if it occurs in initial position. (see J.Bosworth 1983 p.652).

15.16 /D/ and /d/ :

In CA there are two /d/ sounds, a dental stop and an alveolar, palatalized plosive. In the SS of the language they represent contrast and

antithesis. In L only the dental one remains and in OE a merger has taken place producing an alveolar stop. Inspite of being a favourite in initial position in OE in a certain group of words it is used rather less than in CA because it is often replaced by /t/. While /t/ is used very sparingly in CA.

In L /d/ is used rather more than in CA because it replaces other sounds missing in L like /∂ ∂h S θ T/

One must bear in mind that there are two opposing tendencies in OE, the first replaces /d/ and /D/ by /t/ and the second replaces /q x T/ by /d/ and sometimes even /t/ by /d/ (see XVIII).

15.17 The cons /f/ :

In the SS of CA /f/ is the symbol of opening, of making way or breaking through (symbolized by the air passing or making a passage for itself between the lower lip and upper teeth). It is used moderatly in CA. Its occurence of 3.8% is almost the same as that of /m/ 4.1%. Which is the symbol of closing up.

In L and OE it is used far more than in CA because it has replaced the fricatives /H h θ / in many instances.

In OE there are two tendencies. A tendency to replace /f/ by /h/, which is the dominant tendency and a tendency to replace /h q x/ by /f/ in certain words. Then there is a tendency found in both L and OE to bring /f/ to initial position, in word which have it in medial position in CA, or which have the fricative it has replaced in medial position. (see 9.5).

15.18 The cons /š/ :

Like other fricatives /š/ is symbolic of vibration or wavy movements in CA (air passing through numerous passages, the teeth). It portrays strong vibration however, if such vibration is compared with that of /θ/.

In OE it is sometimes replaced by /s/ and sometimes /s/ is replaced by it. The movement is reciprocal. Its occurence in OE is rather close to its occurence in CA. Because the reciprocal movement between it and /s/ comes out almost even. In L it does not exists and is replaced most

of the time by /s/ which accounts for the very high ocurence of /s/ in L, together with the fact that /S/ is also replaced by /s/ in L.

15.19 The cons /R/ :

This cons, the twin of /ɜ/ in the CA alphabet, has got nearly the same cors of /ɜ/, that is /n/ stops and VI. Particularly /b/ in L. In L words taken from Gr it is found as /g/.

In OE it is sometimes found as a fricative, mainly /h/ which is also a cors of /ɜ/ or a stop and it is sometimes deleted.

15.20 The cons /T/ and /t/ :

There are in CA /t/ a dental stop and /T/ an alveolar, palatalized plosive. In the SS of the language they represent two degrees of the same quality. A strong dominating, overpowering movement and a weaker one parallel to it, but lower and less strong. In the dimension up-down there is contrast between them, but the above is the main characteristic. Both sounds are not used very often in CA.

In L where dental /t/ has taken the place of both as well as some of the uses of /q/ /∂/ and /∂h/ /t/ is used much more often than in CA.

In OE there is an alveolar /t/ a merger of the two, and in consequence it is used more than in CA, then there is a tendency to replace /d/ in certain words by /t/ and also palatalized /S/. While /T/ has been merged with /t/ its nearest cors in OE, it is often replaced by ss in OHG. (cf water, [maTar] wasser, betera, [baTar] besser, etan [aTɜama] essen.).

15.21 The fricatives /∂ θ ∂h/ :

Are used very sparingly in CA and not at all in L. In OE *þ* is a favourite. It has taken over much of the usage of /s/ and in a few cases it is replaced by /s/ (9.6).

15.22 The cons /z/ :

Is used sparingly in CA and in words that designate a buzzing sound. Many of the words containing /z/ in CA are anomatopoeic. In OE it does not exist except in loan words and in L it is found in words taken from Gr.

15.23 The semi Vl Y :

/y/ is used very little as a cons in CA because its main role is on the morphological level to produce the different categories from two syl V. On the synatctic level it has other used also. In OE it is used little, but more than in CA, while in L it exists in diphthongs as it does in CA even when the diphthong is written as æ or œ (see J. Mountfort P. 4) it is pronounced /ay/ or /oy/.

15.24 The new role of Vl in L and OE :

If we look at the table. We find that 75.3% of L consonants have a front point of articulation (bilabials, labiodental, dentals). In OE the percentage is 55.4% and in CA it is 30.1% Does that mean that the Romans used only their lips and teeth to speak?

In order to understand what has taken place let us consult an Arabic speaker innocent of linguistics. If an Arab is asked to identify the initial cons in the Mod Eng V "tell" and the adj "tall" whose CA cognates are [tælæ:] and [Ta: læ] respectively, he would say that the first is /t/ and the second in /T/. Similarly he would identify the initial cons in 'sound', CA cog [SawT] as /S/ while that of 'seen' CA cog [sænæ:] as /s/.

The difference in the Mod Eng words above is not in the cons but in the Vl quality. What has taken place in L an OE is that due to the loss of cons, the Vl have taken over the function of achieving contrast of back vs front articulation, the function which is performed by the cons in CA. That was an ingenius solution and the closest possible to the original. By so doing Vl have become independent of the cons they follow, to a cerain extent, and have undergone several changes (see Byon 1983) since they have become the significant factor in deciding the differences between words whose consonants have been merged.

CHAPTER XVI

The New and The Old

16.1 Summary of previous findings :

In the preceding chapters we have shown the causes of change, that we enumerate below in order to start showning the ways of change after that.

1. Loss of SS
2. Loss of the significance of Vl
3. Loss of the six back cons. (And /϶ rx/ as well)
4. Merger of 3 syl and 2 syl verbs
5. Loss of patterns
6. Loss of verb paradigms
7. Loss of most verb families

We can say briefly that the loss of significance on the level of SS has made the six back cons redundant, so that they became merged with the front ones producing new phonemes in OE, while only the front ones remain in L. This loss has in turn brought about the loss of V paradigms, which has triggered together with the loss of consonants the loss of V families.

The loss of significance between three and two syl V on the morphological level together with the loss of consonants has resulted in the merger of these two groups. This merger has in turn confused and destroyed the rules for deriving other categories from these two groups (as well as the V of 4 syl also, these undergo more deletions) such mergers have resulted in the disconnection of verbs and their families.

After all these losses it was naturral that each language should try to discard what had become insignificant or redundant. In fact a major rule governs both L and OE which demands more compact forms. The results of this rule are :

1. Deletions
2. Clustering
3. Reduction of Vl
4. Reduction of diphthongs
5. Metathesis
6. Loss of longer patterns in favour of the shorter ones

We have given many examples of deletion in the preceding chapters. One cannot overestimate its role in the changes and differences that exist between the three languages.

16.2 Pat that do not exist in CA :

Clustering is responsible for many of the new forms. One of the most effective ways of having more compact form is deletion of Vl which produces together with metathesis consonantal clusters.

1. All forms which have initial clusters are new patterns that do not exist in CA.
2. All forms having medial clusters are new patterns which do not exist in CA.
3. All forms having final clusters of more than two consonants are new patterns which do not exist in CA.

We have revised above the loss L and OE have undergone, and the reactions that set in. Now we shall examine briefly some of the new patterns and see whether we can recognise anything of the old in them. These new patterns may be considered as an attempt to make up for the losses that have taken place and to meet demands on the language for clarity and the rich semantic content that the losses have depleted.

A statistic sample taken from L shows that only 35% of the old patterns exist, while 65% are new creations. A similar sample taken from OE shows that ony 33% of the old patterns exist and 67% are new patterns.

16.3 Patterns that exist in the three languages :

The patterns most common in CA exist in L and OE such as the following :

CVCC, CVCVC, CVC + CVC CV:CVC and, CVC, CVCI, CVCVCI as well as the verbal patterns CVCVCV in L, the pat of the unmarked form in CA, and the pat CVCCVN in OE, the pat of the supine in CA. These we have given examples of in preceeding chapters.

Now let us take some of the patterns that do not exist in CA and show why they do not exist. We shall not go in detail in the pat of either L or OE, but only enough to show what is meant by new patterns.

16.4 Comparison of L currō and CA [car'ra] :

If we take the L V currō as our first example. Its CA cog is [car'ra]. The first pers sing in CA is [a-cur'ro]. It is very close to the first pers sing in L given above. But what are the forms derived from this V in L? They are cursito (to run about), curriculum (a small car) cursim (quickly, swiftly) cursus (course, way, track).

All these forms do not exist in CA because they are made by the introduction of suffixes, which in CA would make them belong to another V.

16.5 Comparison of OE haerfest and the CA /Harθ/ + /faraH/ :

If we take the OE word haerfeast (harvest). There is no such word in CA, but the root (harð)* has a CA cog [Harθ]. It comes from the RV [Haraθa] to till the earth and [Harθ] means crop. The word faest is [faraH] in CA (joy or feast). The two together do not exist in CA but each exists separately. The word probably meant in olden times crop-feast.

16.6 Difference in pat of OE Caru and CA [carb] :

If we take OE caru, cearo and compare it with its CA cog [carb] (care, worry, disaster anxiety) in the OE form the final /b/ had been deleted, because /b/ in final position is often changed to /t/ or /p/ or deleted. The word became a two syl V and the N derived from it a two cons N derived in accord with the rules for two syl V in CA. It has the typical pat of a N derived from two syl V in CA, but it is not to be found in this shape in CA, because in CA it comes from a three syl V [caerabae] and has accordingly the typical pat of such nouns CVCC.

16.7 Comparison of L lenis and CA [layen] :

If we take the L adj lenis (soft, pliable). Its comes from the V [lae:na] in CA, and it means to become pliable, flexible, soft. The adj is not lenis however, although the pat CVCI does exist in CA and it is an adjectival pat, because each pat has significance in CA. The significance of [layen] means something having this quality, softness, its characteristic or essence is softness, but the pat CVCI gives the meaning belonging to connected with, pertaining to. With this semantic content [læyen] is the appropriate adj, because 'belonging to softness' would not make sense. In L the innate significance of patterns has been lost. (we

have seen how 𝔄𝔢𝔡𝔦𝔩 is used as doer of the action instead of undergoer of the action although this pat in CA signifies undergoer of the action). Therefore an adjectival is used, the short CVCI instead of CVYVC since both have become equally insignificant and the shorter one is more in accord with the new rules of the language.

16.8 The pat CVCI in L and OE :

Does the pat CVCI exist in OE? There are remnants to show that it does but apart from these remnants it has changed to CVCIG because final long /i/ or /y/ is changed to /g/ in OE. In Mod Eng, the descendant of this pattern has entered the language through two sources, through L and through OE. Through OE there are remnants like greedy, OE 𝔤𝔯𝔞𝔡𝔦𝔫𝔤. Through L the adjectival ending -ian, because when the inflectional ending is given to this pattern and final /n/ is added it becomes /yan/, the inflectional suffix in CA and /n/.

Ex : [suri] [suriyæn] Mod Eng Syrian.
[finiqi] [finiqiyan] Mod Eng Phoenician.

It is the same adj, the same pat except that the inflectional ending and final /n/ has been added. In CA it is used often for adjs denoting nationality, that is belonging to such a nation or people, just as it is in IE languages. L has both versions of the adj but does not recognise that it is the same pat.

16.9 Comparison of the cognate form /falq/ in L, OE and CA :

Let us now take one form from each language and trace its root and some of its family. Let us take

L falx OE felg CA [fælq]

The RV in CA is [fælaeqa] to cleave, separate, set apart. Therefore the N in CA means a part of the whole, what has been cleft. In OE it means part of the circumference of a circle, in L it means a sharp blade or scyth, possibly because a scyth cleaves or a scyth is part of a circle. The N is a typical N of the pat CVCC, which is common in the three languages. The L form however has got /cs/ instead of /q/ in CA and its cors by AC /g/ in OE. This we shall discuss below. The pat may still be considered intact since /cs/ is considered one cons in L. So far the cors is clear; the differences are not great. Now let us take the verbs of the same root as the N above.

L flectō, flexi OE cleófan CA [fælæqa]

The OE form has undergone metathesis, like other forms of similar pat bringing /q/ as /c/ to initial position.

We perceive that some OE words undergo changes which the verbs have not undergone, the opposite is also true. This is due to the fact that OE has taken words from different sources and that the language belongs to more than one tribe. (see Bauch p. 58 1968).

As a result there is this difference or disconnection between some V and the N derived from them. It is something that accounts for some of the differences found between CA and OE, and L and OE.

In L we have the old problem of L usage, that is the semantic content of two or more verbs is placed upon the form of one and this form is used to carry the semantic load of the three.

In CA there is the V [fælqasa] and [fae: raqa] to bend breaking, to curve and to separate from, to leave, pass by. All these are found in the semantic content of flecto. It is the four syl CA V ending in /q s/ above that accounts for the final /x/ in the L N and V.

16.10 New adjectival pattern in OE :

In OE we find a new pat that is not found in CA, and yet it is rather familiar. If we compare: deóp [ɜæmiyiq] steóp [sæHiyq] seóc [sæqiym].

We notice that the medial cons has been deleted in one and two and that the final /m/ has been deleted in three (/m/ is liable to be deleted under certain circumstances in OE (see Bothworth P. 652). The result is a new pat that has a short initial Vl and a long final Vl or diphthong as the older one, but without the medial consonant. It is made of two syl like the older one also. It appears that this pat which originally belonged to three syl V has become a favourite in OE and we find it replacing other adjectival patterns, which belong to two syl V, as in the example below :

Ex : CA [Da:ri] L dirus OE deór (wild, fierce)

We notice that L has removed the final /i/ of this pat to initial position then gives it the ending -us. Thus producting a pat that is used for

N derived from V of the pat CVC'CV in CA, but not the pat CVCV: which is the pat of the V from which this adj is derived. It is the V [Dara:] to become wild, savage, fierce.

16. 11 Merger of patterns in L and OE :

One of the basic differences between CA on the one hand, and L and OE on the other, is that in CA each category has got its distinctive patterns so that one can tell whether this is a N, V or adj by the pat of the word. In L and OE there is no such consistency in the patterns of the different categories. The same pat may be used for both N and Adj, V or N and adverb. It is not only a matter of the merger of the patterns of two syl and three syl V, but it is a complete collapse of the system that distinguished each category by its patterns.

Ex : In L the pat CVCI is very common but although it is an adjectival pat in CA, (as shown above) it is used for both N and adj in L Lenis is an adj, but cinis (ashes), CA [cæns] is a N, nevertheless L uses this adjectival pat for it.

The pattern ending in -a marks the fem pat in both CA and L, although this final a is the mark of the fem sing in both languages, we find L adverbs having this final a.

Ex : crica, frustra

The above forms are both adverbs inspite of the fact that the pat is predominanatly that of the fem sing.

In OE we find this same disconnection between categories and their patterns. The pat CVVC is mainly an adjectival pat in OE as shown above, but we do find N and even verbs having this pat :

Ex : leó*p* (tune, lay) CA [laHn]
seón (to see) CA [saenae:]

It is this disconnection of categories and patterns that made it necessary to give each category a suffix in order to differentiate it from other categories. The suffixes in turn have made L and OE patterns differ further from CA and from each others.

CHAPTER XVII

VERBS AND DERIVATIVES

17.1 The origin of Nouns :

Since earliest times man has tried to discover what makes a group of sounds, a word mean a particular object or thing. A great many theories have been suggested throughout the different epochs of history. One of the earliest among them is Plato's theroy of ideas (B. Russell 1945 p.142). In answer to the question of why such and such an object is called a book, table, box, or why such and such an animal should be called cat, horse, dog, he offered the theroy of universals, that is, that there is an ideal cat or book or box in heaven and that what is found on earth is only a replica of this ideal creature, whose name it has acquired. The theory is interesting in the realm of thought for it marks one of the earliest attempts to explain that man knows things he has not seen a priori, and has the mental ability to regulate them into classes, that give universals, so that he does not have to be told each time that this is a cat or a book.

In the realm of linguistics it gives more practical information. It informs us that as early as the third century B.C. the Greeks had already lost touch with the origins of their language. Nouns had already been detached from their root verbs so that they appear mysterious entities of mystical connections, that seem to have come from an unknown source. An Arab of the same period, that would be in the later Arab civilizations of Hamiyr in the south and Petra in the north of the peninsula, would give the simple straight forward answer that all nouns are derived from root verbs and that such and such an animal or object is so called because it has such and such a characteristic, the characteristic that the RV designates.

In this chapter we shall trace the names of some familiar object, and animals and show how they are derived from RV. We shall choose words which have cognate forms in L or OE preferring words that have cog forms in both, to show how each changes in accord with the tendencies of the language it belongs to.

Before starting out is is better not to be over optimistic and to point out that the samples we shall give are only a drop in an ocean of cognate forms and a far greater one of CA forms.

Luckily the ancient Arabs were people who knew the value of the superb mechanism they had in CA, and in consequence they loved it, cherished it, preserved it most carefully and transmitted it to us together with the rules that make it function intact.

17.2 Statistic estimate of number of verbs in L, OE and CA :

We give below the number of verbs and pref+V in L, OE and CA, since all nouns are derived from verbs in CA, these figures are significant, and would allow the reader to conceive the size and potentials of CA. These verbs are the centre of large families made of all the other categories, as well as derived verbs.

	CA	L	OE
Verbs	16,505	778	2140
Pref+V	22,140	2240	1990

We give above the number of V found in CA, L and OE as well as the number of Pref+V. These numbers are only approximate but they give a casual idea of the size and tendencies of each language. CA is many times the size of either L or OE. In fact CA is a colossus among languages. When we come to study the SS of the language, we shall discover why this is so and why it has the potentials of growing several times more or ad infinitum. In L and OE we have given all verbs, those that are RV, or V derived from V. In CA we have not given except RV and their TV since derived V are derived from these through the morphological rules of the language and are given in the dictionary under the heading of the RV, if they are given at all. But we have seen how by change of V1 or by an infix one may derive new V from the RV other than the TV. This would add about 30% more to the number of V given above.

Concerning pref+V we have given all the pref+V in L and OE. We notice that L has a very large number of pref+V in relation to the number of V. This is something the reader in L notices constantly and it is due to the great loss in phonemes as well as the merger of verbs that the language has undergone.

In CA we have given a very conservative estimate of the number of prefixes which occur in actual fact. There are numerous prefixes in CA, and in theory any one of these may be used with any V, so that in order to

obtain the number of pref+V we would have to multiply the number above by ten or more. In practice the semantic content of the V and the contribution the pref offers decide which pref to use with what V. These prefixes may be altered, or remove according to the wish of the speaker. Since they continue to be detachable and productive, they enable each V the maximum of range and the variations in semantic content that its potential allows.

17.3 Compounds in OE :

While there are not very many prefixes in OE in relation to the number of V there are a great may compounds which we have not counted in the above figures since they are made of nouns and not verbs. They enable OE rich and varied semantic content. Nouns that enter in compounds in OE are often severely abbreviated for the purpose.

Ex : Nid (need) CA [naqS] mad (mad) CA [magnoun], OE mŏd (mood) CA [maza:g].

If we examine how they operate in compouds

mŏd lufu	(heart's love) / CA [mæzæ:g] [waliyf]
mŏd-cearu	(sorrow, anxiety) CA [mæzæ:g] [carb]
mŏd-leóf	(charming, dear to the heart) CA [mæzæ:g] [laTiyf]
mod-hwæt	(strong of soul, couragoues) CA [mæzæ:g] [Hawiyt]

While the above compounds are found in CA, they are not used as such in the language. The last two of which the second part is an adj may be used in CA, not as compounds but as a N+adj.

Let us now suppose that there are three languages, language A, language B and language C. Language A has taken one third of the lexicon of CA, language B another third and language C the third third. The three languages would be fairly large and the three would be of the same source, yet they would not have a single word in common.

17.4 Cog in L and OE :

Now let us return to L and OE. How much do they have in common? A sample taken from OE and CA cognate forms shows that 44% of OE words have L cognates, a similar sample taken from L shows that 39% of L forms have OE cognates and 61% do not.

When reading a L or OE text one does not feel that there are so many forms in common (apart from forms which have entered into OE directly from L and which are not included in the sample above).

Why is this so? The reason is that a L or OE text would be made of words that have new suffixes and prefixes and compound nouns as well as other variations which make the two languages seem more different than they actually are. We have obtained a relatively high percentage because we have counted roots. Perhaps an example of how we count words will illustrate the point.

17.5 Comparison of L iam and OE gear :

If we take the adv iam in L and the N gear in OE. They have nothing to suggest that they could be cognates. But we know that in CA, L iam is [ayæ:m] and OE gear is [yawm-un]. The first is the plural of the second. Obviously they come from the same root.

The reasons they look different are the following :

L has the cors /y/ :/i/ and OE has the cors /y/ :/g/ a tri-cors. As we have had occasion to note often before it is the cause of many of the differnces between L and OE. L has retained the final /m/, while OE has changed the final /m/. This example reveals that the tendency for the deletion of final /m/, and sometimes medial /m/ in OE has taken place after the rule for the change of /n/ to /r/ when there is another nasal in the word (12.5). Another difference is that L has the pl pattern while OE has the singular.

Concerning the semantic content of the word, in old CA texts the sing of this N is used to mean a period of time, it can be twenty four hours or twenty thousand years. In Mod Arabic it is used in the limited sense of 24 hours. (cf with Mod Fr jour, which is a cognate). L and CA use the pl of this N as an adv to denote an epoch, in the sense of 'during that era' or 'in the days of ' at that time etc.

OE and Ger use the sing not to denote twenty four hours but one year. There is no reason why this should not be so since the basic sense is a period of time.

When counting words shared by L and OE we count the above as 1, since the root is the same.

17.6 The names of animals of the IE tribes :

Few people, unless they study in CA, realize that the names of animals, in fact all N are derived from RV, or the TV derived from RV, or the TV derived from them. The animal, or human being is called so or so because of some characteristic that it possesses found in the V. We shall give below some of the names of animals and human beings and show how they are derived from RV.

Let us begin with the word animal itself. L animalis is in CA [anɜa:m]. It is derived from the RV [naɜima] to become rich, to gain a blessing, to live in easy circumstances. Animals, particularly cattle were considered a source of wealth or ease and symbol of opulence. The OE cog is niten. The difference between the OE and the L word is that the L has deleted /ɜ/ and the long Vl after ir remains as /i/ in all probability it started out as a long /i/ which was reduced with the general tendency for Vl reduction. The L word is a Pl, as its CA cog, but the word we find in OE from the same root is the fem, sing in CA [niɜmætin]. It appears in OE as nieten, næten, and also niten. /ɜ/ has been changed to a Vl, /a/ or /i/ and the /m/ has been deleted as it often is in OE. The difference between L and OE here is also a difference of pattern, the pl neuter, vs the fem, sing in CA.

The next word OE heord, CA [caTiyɜ] and Skr cardha (which means herd) comes from the RV (qaTaɜa) a part of the whole (see 11.1).

After that we have the word mount, which means anything one rides. In CA it is [maTeyah]. It comes from the RV [maTa:] to ride, to get on. It has entered into Mod Eng through OE munt (for medial n see 12.5) and happens to be close phonetically to L mons, so that it is confused with it. It is assumed that they are from the same root, when they are not. L mons, monten, which means mountain is the cog of CA [mawmatu] which has undergone metathesis bringing /m/ in final position for inflectional purposes in L. In CA it means great open space or deserted land. In L as so often happens, a merger has taken place, so that they appear of the same root.

There are numerous names for horses in CA of which we can recognise four in L and OE. Horses it seems were very important to the IE peoples and that is the reason we find names that distinguish between the

different kinds. There are pictures of the Ancient Egyptians riding chariots pulled by horses, but we must remember that the IE were rather earlier, perhaps two millenums before, or more.

The first name for horse we find in CA and in OHG. In CA it is /faras/ in OHG it is hras, or hros. It comes from the RV [farasæ] which means to savage, prey, and the adj [faras] which has become the name of the horse, means wild, untamed, fierce. In L we find from the same RV. the adj fers and it is connected with the lion, as its CA cog is connected with the lion in CA, but while a name for the horse has been derived from the RV in CA and OHG it remained only as an adj in L. Within the pale of history, when Arab steads were imported to Europe, they were given the name haras in Fr, which was originally [faras] also. This is probably the first noun that refers to a horse, and from it we can infer that the first horses the IE knew were wild ones.

The next name for horse is found in OE mearh, Proto Ger marhjon*, in CA [muhrun]. It comes from the RV [mæhara] to become clever. It is used for a newly born horse, and the implication is that the mother horse becomes more able, if she produces offspring. In Mod Eng it is used for the female horse not its offspring, but morphologically the word can be traced back to the newly born above. It is significant because it shows that horses have become tame.

The next word is found in both L and OE. In L it is equus, in OE it is ehe, while in CA it is [HeS:æn]. The L an the OE words have been very much reduced. In OE this often happen when the word is used as a rune. In L /H/ is often deleted or changed to /q/ as in the case above, while /s/ occurs often as an inflectional ending so that it was removed to final position. The /n/ has been deleted. The initial VI is probably the pref /a/ which gives the V more powers (7.19). It has been reduced to /e/ as it often is in L and OE.

The word comes from the TV [HaS'Sana] which means to fortify. The word [HeSn] Gr zaun or OE tun means a fortified battlement or city, for in olden times cities had high walls which they fortified and protected. A horse used to defend such a city would be a charger. From this word we know that they had fortified cities and that they trained horses for war purposes.

The next word is found in L, it is caballus (Fr cheval) in CA it is [xayl]. The cors is /x/ : /c/ by CC and /y/ : /b/ by Inc.

The word in CA is a collective noun and means figuratively cavalry corpse, or a great army of horsemen. In L it is used with the same semantic content.

One can disern that they had groups of horsemen, of cavalry as the term denotes. The word comes from the V [xaæ:læ] to become proud, to become a good horseman, to become vain, to become chivalrous.

17.7 Sea Life The IE tribes knew :

Did the IE have access to the sea, or were they a people who lived in the central plains of Asia, as some theories maintain? We find the names of sea life generally having cognate forms in CA and L or CA and OE. While we cannot go into detail here, we shall give a few examples below.

In CA the word [huwt] is morphologically the cog of OE hwæl, and ON hvalr. In CA it means fish, particularly a big fish, while in OE it means whale. It comes from the RV [Hæ:tæ] which means to hunt prey, to corner prey, to hover around quarry. From the same root comes OE hunta (hunter). A whale is a fish that does not hunt its prey, so that most probably in olden times it simply meant big fish. (although today in Mod Arabic it means whale, but can mean fish, any fish as well).

If we look at L balena, it comes from the same root as CA [bæ:l]. In both languages the word means whale. The differnce is that L uses the fem pat, while CA uses the neuter. The RV is [bæ:læ] which means to grow of huge, very great or extraordinary dimensions. One can see that the word has always meant a whale. From the same RV comes OHG ball (bale). CA [bæ:lah].

The word [sæmæc], Pl [somouc] AF savmoun, ME salmon, means fish, any kind of fish in CA. The RV is [sæmæca] which means to be thich, to have thickness, the third dimension after length and breadth. It must have meant a fat fish, or a fish that has thickness. In IE languages it has become the name of a particular fish, the salmon whereas originally it was not.

The word fisc in OE, (fish), fisioc in Porto Ger an [fisiyx] in CA. comes from the RV [fasaxa] (see 2.13).

The word turtle, OE turtla, L turtur and CA [tersatu] all mean sea turtle. The RV from which the word is derived means to take refuge behind, to take as fort or shield. From the same V comes OE targe and its CA cog [ters] which was a small, round shield. The turtle was so called because it has a shield upon its back.

Similarly L delphinus (taken from Gr) and CA [daxas] mean dolphin and come from the RV [dæxasa] to grow muscular, fat, strong, and words like L cancer, OE crabba, CA [cæboriah] also OE frogga, CA [DofDaɘ] come from the same root, while the word 'shark' in Mod Eng is a mirror image of its ancient cog [qerš]. The RV is [qaraša] to bite, break crunch or grind with the teeth. This V shows that the word has not changed semantic content.

The few examples given above show that they were a people who had access to the sea. Not a little lake, but an open sea where big fish like sharks and whales could be found.

17.8 The names of boats of the IE tribes :

Did they make use of the sea, or were they content to sit upon its shore? The CA word [sæfinah] is a cog of ship, Gr schiff. The RV is [sæfæna]. It is used for the wind when it rises high. A ship is something that moves by the wind. Similarly the word 'raft' comes from ON rafter, rapter, which is in CA [ræmaθ]. It is derived from the RV [ræmæθa], to put together, to put in order. A raft is made of wood beams that are put together (Mod Fr ramasser).

The L word navis (ship) comes from the LV navigare, whose CA cog is [naxara] to plough through the water.

The L word carina, OE cnear, CA [qa:reb] are also cognates (12.5) and they all means boat. Similarly OE hulc is the cog of CA [fulc] it means the frame or body of a big boat.

17.9 Numbers from One to Ten :

We tend to think of numbers as entities apart, disconnected from other words, as if they sprang from nowhere.

We shall trace below the RV from which each number sprang and show how it originated for all the RV from which numbers sprang, whether those of CA or L or OE are found in CA.

The number one : In CA is [wa:Hed], it means one, a unified, whole entity. It comes from the V [wæH'Hædæ] to be one, to unify, to make whole. From the same RV comes [aHad] which means single, individual, sole. It has a cog in OE hàd. The initial Vl has been deleted in th OE cog, but its effect remains in the longer medial Vl. When the word is used alone it means a single person, a man in both OE and CA. While [wa:Hed] means number one or one person.

The number one : Is in OE án, Proto-Ger oinos, L uns Goth eins. It comes from the RV [anisæ]. In CA it is [ens] and it means one person. The RV means to find comfort in, to feel secure with, to like, to feel less afraid. It seems in olden times a person or [ens] was a rare thing and was something desirable to have around. We notice that in both CA and the IE languages the first single entity ever counted was a human being. [ens] is a masc, but it may be used for women and children also, for any single person of the human species. This is how it came to represent the number one.

The number two : In CA is [cθnayn]. It comes form the RV [θanæ:]. It means to fold something into two parts, to bend something so as to have two equal parts, hence two entities. The L word for two is duo, the OE word is twa. They do not come from the same RV as the CA word but from the V [Tawa:]. It means to bring the two edges of something together, to fold it in two, to cover up one part with the other. It appears in L as tutari (to cover, not the same as Fr tuer which means to kill and is in CA, [Ta:Ha] (to kill, destroy).

The number three : Comes from the same RV in the three languages compared. It is the TV [θal'laθa]. It is used for fruit when one third approximately is ripe but not all, less than half, then for a chord to be divided to braid in three parts. L tria, OE *p* rio, have undergone deletion of the last syl and clustering of the first and second /1/ : /r/ by AC.

The number four : The number four comes from a different V in each of the three languages. In CA it comes from the V [rab'bæɜæ] the TV of [rabæɜæ] to be square, firm, solid, the TV means to sit firmly, to form a square figure on the ground, to sit cross-legged, to be in full control of. Four is [arbæɜah] in CA.

In L the number four comes from theV [cæ϶'϶æbæ] the TV of [cæ϶æbæ] to rise above ground in three dimensions. The TV means to form a cube. Four in L is quator cors /c/ : qu. /b/ : /t/, /϶/ : /r/. From the same V comes L cubus which has entered the language through Gr and retained the orignial semantic content found in CA.

The number four : In OE feower, comes from the RV [fæðæ ra] to cut in many strips. In OE it means to cut in four strips or parts, hence the number four. The word occurs with two pronunciations. There is feder and feower. The first is the older and in accord with the RV, the second is a typical case of words derived from V which have lost one syl and then submitted to rule of 2 syl V. (6.10).

The number five : Or [xamsæh] in CA means to make a small part of the whole, a small difference, of rising or falling a hollow inside a bigger frame. Thus it came to mean one out of five, and the number five. L quinque and Skr. panca come from the same RV as the CA word. Cors in L /x/ : /c/ /m/ : /n /s/:/c/ by EC, cors in Skr. /x/ : /c/ /m/ : /n/ /s/ : /p/ by Inc. The Skr word has undergone metathesis.

The word for five in OE is fif. It comes from a different RV than CA. It comes from the V [laf'fa] to turn round, to make a circle round. The CA cognate form is [læfiyf]. It means a group, a bevy. Since a circle can be made of five, it came to mean five in OE. The OE word has undergone deletion of the first syl.

The number six : The word for the number six is the same in CA as well as OE, L and other IE languages. It is six in OE sex in L and [set'tah] in CA (see 12.4).

The V is [sat'ta]. It means to be backward, not in the front rows, not of the first, inferior, in area, hence not quite of the first numbers nor of the last or biggest.

The number seven : Comes from the same RV in CA, OE, L and Skr as well as other IE languages. The RV is [sæba϶a]. It means to devour while quite young, about a week old. One of the names of the lion in CA is [sæb϶] from the same RV. It also means to give birth in the seventh month, hence not quiet at the appointed time, but a little less.

The cognate forms in L is septum, Skr sapta OE seofon and CA [sæbϿæn] the difference between the L and Skr form is that L uses a masc pat while Skr has a fem pat ending in /a/. Both have interpreted CA /Ͽ/ as /t/. OE has the masc pat like L but the difference between it and L is that in OE /Ͽ/ is interpreted as /o/ and /b/ : /f/ by AC. cases of tri cors.

The number eight : Comes in CA from theTV [θæm'mænæ] to value to estimate, to assess, of high price (if an object). Among the numbers from one to nine, eight holds a high position, hence this interpretation and choice of verb.

The verb from which L octo and OE eahta come as well as Skr. ashtau is the CA V [aHaTa]. It is a V+pref, and it means to surround fully, to be in full control of. Eight can surround completely. This is the cause of this choice.

The number nine : Comes in CA from the RV [sæ:Ͽa] to be able to hold, to have space, capacity. The immediate V from which nine comes is [etasæϿa] a pre+V and it means to grow wider of greater capacity. Nine is the biggest of the one digit numbers. From this same RV comes the number ten in L and OE as well as other IE languages.

If we compare Proto Ger texan* and CA [tesϿan] we find that the difference is that Proto Ger interpreted /Ͽ/ as /c/, a NC which we have met before in both L and OE.

The number nine : In L and OE is novum and nigon respectively. The cognate form in CA is [nayf] it comes from the RV [næ:fæ]. It does not mean nine, but to be over, above, to exceed, to be a large number. The difference between the L and the OE form is that OE has changed the medial /y/ in the CA word to /g/ by CC, while L has changed the whole diphthong to a Vl, and /f/ to /v/. OE has deleted the final /f/.

The number ten : Comes in CA from the RV [Ͽa:šara] to live with for a long time, ten months or ten years, hence ten is the biggest number or the number of two digitals.

17.10 The numbers one Hundred and one Thousand :

From the RV [mæ:hæ] comes the word [mæ:aʼh] in CA and manig in OE. CA has the fem. pat, which always denotes a particular instance, a special case, and OE has given it the adjectival ending -ig. The semantic content of the RV is to extend, to flow out, to spread out, hence to be of large number. In CA the word [mæ:æʼh] means a hundred. The Fem pat is used to denote that this is a particular or fixed large number, not an unknown one. While in OE the word manig [many] retains the meaning of the RV, that is an indefinite large number.

The word for a hundred in L and OE is centum and hundred. They come from the same RV as the word [ahad] or single above in CA. How has this come about? The RV means to give a boundary, a limit. In CA giving an entity boundaries means setting it apart as one unified entity, hence the number one, but L and OE have used the primary sense of the V, that is to give boundary or limit. The number 100 is the boundary between numbers of two zeros and one zero.

While L has taken the word for one thousand from the V [mæ:læ]. OE as well as other IE languages have taken the N thousand from the same V from which nine was taken, that is the V [sæ:ɜa] and the derived V is (tæ+wasæɜa). It is a pref + V.

If the RV means to grow wider, the derived V (all V with /w/ as medial infix have this potential) means to grow much larger, bigger, to expand, to enlarge, to extend.

The word in OE is *p* usend, pointing to an original Slavo Tuetonic tussontia. The OE word has the following cors /θ/ : /t/ by AC, /ɜ/ : /d/ by CC /w/ : /u/. The CA form is [tæwasuɜan].

The word for a thousand comes in CA from the V [al'lafa] to put together, to make a group or compound. [alf] is then a compound big number as the name denotes and the semantic content of the RV designates.

In L the word for thousand is millus. It comes from the V [mæ:la] in CA, which means to incline, to lean towards hence extention. Words from this V are used in CA to describe long distances or long period of time, almost infinite, and also the N /mæyl/ which was in olden times a lighthouse placed at strategic far apart distances for travellers. It was used also for measuring distances upon sea and land. The Hashimite

[mæyl] was 4000 cubits. L has used the same V to produce a word denoting great numbers. Millus can mean one thousand and also an infinite number in L.

From the TV of this V, the V [mal'la] comes the L word millia which is in CA [mil'lah] and it means a group of people of the same race or creed who occupy a large area, approximately a mile. The Roman mile was 1000 paces or 1618 yards, approximately.

17.11 Proper Names :

A proper name is a noun like any other, but a noun that has acquired special significance. A proper N found in both L and CA or OE and CA is a N that has lived through thousands of years and entered into many a fable. It is also a N like all others that conforms to the rules of the language it belongs to, though perhaps a little less so, since distinction from other forms, special significance is its hall mark. After examining some of the rules that govern CA, L and OE, we are in a position to trace some of these proper nouns.

The first N to examine is the word Latin or Latinus. Its cog in CA is [waTan]. It means native land, homeland, land of origin. It comes from the RV [waTina] to settle, to live in, to make one's home. The initial /w/ : /l/ in L by FC.

The next proper N to examine is the N Greek. Its cog in CA is [eRriyq]. (the Greeks). It comes from the RV [Rariqa] which means to drown, to go in the deep, to be immersed in deep water. The OE V drownian is its cognate. cors /q/ : /d/ by FC, /R/ deleted. The V has become a 2 syl V and acquired /w/ in consequence.

To return to the word "Greek". Why should the Greeks be called "those immersed in the deep"? Man thinks relatively and to the Arabs who have one great stretch of land, the Greeks who lived in little islands seen immersed in the deep. Similarly the Greeks called the old Arab civilization of Tadmir, Petra, (the Rock) because its inhabitants carved houses out of the mountains.

The Fr. port of Marsaille has as cog form in CA [mærsæ:]. It means port, harbour, place to anchor. The RV is [ræsæ:] to stop movement, to lay anchor. Its OE cog is restian (to rest). The word is made of the pref [ma+ræsæ:] the final long Vl is changed to "ille" in Fr, by AC.

Are proper names of individuals also derived from RV? Let us see. In CA a large number, in fact all proper names may be traced to their RV. Thus [nabil] means noble and has as cog in L nobilis, while [ɜa:del] means just, noble and has as cog in OE and in Mod Ger edel. Similarly the famous Greek name Herculis comes in CA from the RV. [harcæla] to grow of great size, of superhuman propotions. While Vulcan, the blacksmith of the gods, comes fron the RV [bæraca] the N is [burca:n] (volcano). It seems the movements of volcanos was attributed to the diligence of this smith. Similarly the L N monette, the godless of the mint has as cog in CA [mæ:l] and it means money. Monette is the Fem pat having tt in L, in CA it would be [mælatu].

The proper name America is derived from that of Amerigo Vespucci, one of the first to sail to the New world. The word is in CA, [æmiyr]. It comes fron the RV [amara] and it means to command, to rule, hence [amiyr] is a commander, ruler, prince. The Sp word has undergone the cors of /y/ : /g/ by CC. It means prince, and America, the fem pat means princess. It is not an IE word however but has been taken in Sp directly from CA, as a great many words have, during the seven centuries the Arabs lived in Spain.

Sometimes old words particularly proper names which manage to survive long after their practicle significance is gone, are interpreted rather differently by succeeding generations. In CA we have the original semantic content of the RV.

Ex : The town of Bamborough has in OE the name bebben-burh. This name in CA is made ot two words as it is in OE [bebæ:n] means doors. It is the pl : of [bæ:b] which means door, and burh CA [burg] means fortified city, citadel, tower. The whole would mean city or citadel of the doors. The context in which the word occurs also suggests this : "Ida began to reign from whom arose the noble race of the Northambians and reigned twelve years. He built Bambourough which was at first enclosed by a hedge, and afterwards by a wall" (A.D. 547).

The connection of building suggests that the word does have the semantic content given above, since such walled cities had gates which were opened or closed by the inhabitants at will.

Later generations however (731) suggest that the city was called Bebban-burh after the name of a queen called Bebba. It is suggested that

King **Aedelfrid**, the grandson of king **Ada** gave it this name (see Bosworth p. 73).

We tend to believe that bebban means doors and that the final /a:n/ would not be given to a proper name but to a common one, in accord with the rules of syntax of CA which were maintained in early OE, to a considerable extent.

If we take another example from ON burgon darholmr. It has been interpreted as Isalnd of the Burgandians. Now if we interpret it in accord with its semantic value in CA it is three words not one.

Burgon : as we have seen above means citadel or fortifies city in CA as well as most Germanic Languages.

While in olden times the tribes who lived in these citadels were recognised by their homes and called "those of the towers" the new interpretation reverses the sense, making the towers recognized by them.

/dar/ is in CA [da:r] it means house or home. In L the word has become domus. The inflectional ending of [da:r-un] has been changed to /m/ and /r/ has been deleted. The more ponderous /m/ has taken the place of both /n r/ as well as the long Vl.

In consequence it has become attached to the V dominō in L which is [Da:mæ] in CA. A different root from that of [da:r] even though the semantic content of to take a home and to dominate, rule, subjugate are not close. It is the phonetic shape together with the idea of taming, making domestic, subjugating to one's will that caused the attachement.

In OE [Da:mæ] which means to judge wrongly in CA is dóm (doom) and CA [da:r] is dór (door). In OE the whole has come to mean the part. Home has come to mean door, a metonymy.

Even so, one can use the one for the other in certain idiomatic phrases. One can say "He came to my door" or "at my door" and mean my house in Mod Eng, possibly because of this underlying metonymy. holmr : is in CA /hæm-in/. It means protected place, home, protected precincts. OE ham comes form the same root. The RV [hæmæ:] means to protect. [dar Hæmi-n] would mean a place or precincts that protects "house of protection", a sheltering home. (see B. Lockwood p. 3 1965). The whole would be tower-house of protection. The changes that the word holmr has undergone are the following. The long Vl has been changed

to /l/ as it is in L and OE in many words, the final /n/ is changed to /r/ by dissimilation to /m/.

Supposing we try to interpret the porper name "Gudihari" (it is the name of king Gunther of the lay of the Nuibelungs) according to the meaning of these words in CA. In CA it is made of two words [gundi] + [Harbi]. Jundi is the same as CA [gundi] and it means soldier. hari is CA [Harbi:] the word has undergone deletion of final /b/. The RV is [Hærabæ] to fight and from this V comes the L word, taken from Gr (harpoon) L harpago CA cog [Harbæh]. To retrun to the name above, the whole in CA means "soldier of war".

Supposing we take a familiar proper name like "the Thames". Does it have significane in CA? OE Tems, L temis, gen Tamisæ has in CA a more general meaning, it is [Tamiys]. It comes from the RV [Tamæsæ] to sweep over, to flow over, to cover. It can be a river flowing over the land or the clouds sweeping over the stars. We notice it is given the definite art to denote that it is a particular instance.

17.12 [al Fariyd] :

There are two kings in early British histroy called Alfred. Alfred, the wise 685-750 and Alfred, the Great 849.

In OE the name has been interpreted as frep or peace. Does it have any significnace in CA?

In order to understand what it signifies and how overlap has taken place in OE after the RV was lost, let us return to the RV in CA, it is the verb [færadæ] (to spread to disengage, to put aside, separate). It appears that in early times peace meant separating or disengaging the people who fight. From the same RV comes the adj [fariyd] in CA. It means singular, of unparalled, great, unique, match less qualities. The word is still used as a proper N in Arab countries. When a N or adj is preceded by /al/ in CA it is changed from a common to a proper N or adj. It does not denote a quality anymore but distinguishes a particular perosn. It is equivalent to the adjectives preceded by “the” in Mod Eng (like the wise, the just), when they follow a proper noun. It is something the person is distinguished by, his dominant characteristic.

In CA it is called [cenayatu] in OE the V is cneóđan, and in L connotare (Like many LV it is an authentic V which has been analysed as

pref+v by merger with another). In olden times great men were distinguished by their tribes or people by such adjectives preceded by /al/ ing CA, and when the took the place of /al/ by "the" in OE. In all probability the name [al fariyd] or Aelfred was used as a connotation the first time, then when it became a proper name, and /al/ had lost its significnace, other such attributes had to be used after it so that there is Aelferd the wise and Aelfred the Great. Search in early Brithish histroy might reveal who was the first [al fariyd] or the unparalleled one.

17.13 Skills of the IE :

In the preceding chapters we have seen how very well planned and constructed the language of the IE was on all five levels. Such a language does not belong to a primitive people.

In this chapter we have seen that the names of things are not arbitrarily chosen but depend on the characteristics of the thing so called. Through what the IE call things one sometimes gets a glimpse of knowledge one does not expect people in an early stage of civilization to have. If we look at the word for heart, CA [qalb] L cors, OE heart.

It is a cognate in all three (8.3). It comes form the RV [qalæba] whose TV is [qal'laba] the RV means to turn, to turn over, and the TV means to keep turning over and over again. The heart is so called because it turns the blood into the body. The circulation of the blood in the body was discovered by Harvy in the eighteenth century, and yet this word denotes unmistakably that the IE knew the role the heart plays. Otherwise they would have called it "what throbs", or "what ticks".

Similarly the process of breathing is called [šahiyq] and [zafiyr] to inhale or get air into the lungs and to exhale or get air out of the lungs.

If we examine the word [qalaq]. It comes form the RV [qalæqa] to disturb, to stir, to make anxious or worried. [qalaq] means anxiety. If we study this word on the level of SS we find that it has the same cons /q/ at the beginning and the end of the word, while the centre is occupied by /l/. In the SS of the language /q/ is one of the strongest sounds, and it stands for cavity, dome, hence a depth or captivating area, while /l/ which stands for extention or leaning toward is a weak sound because its quality and direction are not independent but decided by the cons before and after it. The two cons in this word are the same hence of equal strength, so that we have two strong pulls in opposite directions and a

weak central force that cannot settle the matter or lean in either direction. It is only recently that modern psychology was able to define anxiety as a conflict between two equally strong motives or pulls.

Such glimpses into the IE language lead one to conclude that these people had reached a high standard of civilization before being destroyed (possibly?) immigrating and having to start anew.

17.14 Cognate and Referent :

In the preceding pages we have traced many words to their RV. In fact all words, whether common or proper nouns, may be traced back to the verb they were derived from. In (3.6) we have seen how the native speaker of CA does not have to know the meaning of particular words but only the RV and the pattern. From these he can know the meaning of the word or coin new words that other speakers of the language would understand because they also are aware of the significance of RV applied to the pattern.

In olden times different peoples who used the same language before the loss of SS and the loss of the rule producing words could and did coin whatever words they needed from RV.

In consequence we come sometimes across the same form from the same RV having the same pattern and the same semantic content but a different referent.

CA	GR	OE	AE	L
(qors) (qars) (qoras)	chorus	curse	uræus	cōrus

All the words above come from the RV [qaraSa] which means to make a circle or cone-shaped thing by twirling or pinching.

In CA it gives the words [qors] which means disc or round object. It is used for the disc of the sun, and [qars] which means pinching. [qa:res] adj. (biting).

From this meaning comes the semantic content of to hurt or injure with the tongue. The Pl [qoras] is a kind of round cake.

In GR the word **thorus** is derived form this V and it meant originally to dance in a ring or circle, to twirle. In OE we find the word **curse** (curse) to injure with the tongue as in CA.

In AE (Ancient Egyptian) we find the N **uraeus** which was a circular band with a snake at its head, worn by the ancient Egyptian deities. (for more on the cors /u/ : /q/ by CC (see 8.8)
(for more on AE see appendix).

While in L **cōrus** whose CA cognate is [qa:res] is used as the name of the biting northwest wind. Not one of the languages above has diverged from the basic meaning of the RV. Yet each has used it differently. Such forms we may call cognates because as far as the language is concerned they are the same, but they are not absolute cognates so we may call them MC or morphological cognates. These MC are able to give us clues to what forms have been derived before separation of the tribes and what have not. MC are words that must have been coined after separation of the tribes and absolute cognates before it. MC are few in comparison with words that are absolute cognates in OE and a little less so in L because of the necessity of coinging new words.

CHAPTER XVIII

DIFFERENT TENDENCIES IN OE

18.1 The four dialects :

Old England was divided into four major districts, where four different dialects were spoken. The Northumbian, the Mercian, the West Saxon and the Kentish. The West Saxon dialect has prevailed over the other three and most manuscripts were written in this dialect. (for a more detailed account see Bauch 1968 P. 60).

In consequemce we have treated OE as one language, but one must be aware that it is a language which was subjected to numerous influences and that numerous Germanic tribes have settled successively as well as co-existed in Great Britain. One must not exclude the influences over the language that may be due to contact with other tribes in their original home on the continent. Luckily these tribes were all IE tribes and all the words we have found have their cors and their cognates in CA.

In OE there are major tendencies which we assume to belong to the West Saxon dialect, and minor tendencies very different from it, sometimes the exact antithesis, which must have entered the language through neighbouring dialects. A study of the different tendencies in OE and their comparison with other Germanic tongues, to sort out which influences come from the continent and which were originally upon the island, would form a most interesting research that would decide how much of Celtic or other influences there exist in OE. This research has to be a work apart, if it is to be given its due. In this comparative study all we can do is to digress a little to point out briefly some of the more salient features of the different dialects of which OE is formed.

Study of the language shows that unlike Latin or other dialects, OE does not have a few major rules and numerous word that have submitted to other phonetic and morphological rules and may be safely considered loan words, but that the exceptions in OE are nearly as numerous as the main rules, so that a study of the language reveals that it is more than one language, more than one dialect but two or three which were able to merge because they were originally from the same mother tongue.

18.2 Morphological tendencies :

Let us look first at some of the morphological tendencies in OE and then some of the phonetic ones. In OE there are two opposing major tendencies. A tendency to delete three syl words to one syl and a tendency to cluster them into compact form.

A word that has undergone severe deletion can undergone no clustering and a word that has been reduced to more compact form though deletion of Vl and clustering of consonants undergoes no further deletions. The two tendencies exclude each other.

We find many words in OE reduced to the pat. CVC. This pat exists in CA and in OE for words derived from two syl V, but we find it used in OE for words from three syl V which have undergone severe deletion.

Ex : [Ɜætæm] dim (dim, dark) [Ɜariyn] denn (den) [naqs] nid (need) [xa:les] leas (less), [xalæf] leáf [leave] [qaliyl] lytle (little) [zuƐnuf] fin (fin) dic [xin Daq] (ditch) céas [xiSa:m] (quarrel).

The language from which the above examples were taken has a rule that deletes one syl of words where a phoneme that is not found in it occurs. We do find such deletions in words where all the phonemes are found in OE like :

Ex : [walæfa] lufu (love), [mæwg] wag (wave) mad [magnoun] (mad).

It is possible that deletions started in words where phonemes not found in OE occur and then in words where no such phonemes occur by analogy.

The second tendency is to cluster words, particularly words having phonemes that do not occur in the language (after changing them to other stops or fircatives that do) and obtain the pat CCVC or CCVCC (discussed in 14.16).

Since the two tendencies contrast we may come across words originally from the same root looking rather different.

Ex :

Mod Eng	OE N	N in CA	OE V	RV in CA
1. gallows 2. light 3. part of	1. galga 2. Leoma 3. felg	[ɜolæ:qah] [lamɜan] [fælq]	clingan gleaman cleofan	[ɜæl'læqa] [lamaɜa] [falaqa]

1. The N has submitted to a deletion rule while the V has submitted to a clustering rule, the cors of the N is /q/ : /g/ by AC and /ɜ/ :/g/ by EC. The V has the cors /q/ : /c/ and /ɜ/ : /g/ by assimilation to the /n/ before to. In OE semi-Vl after /g/ or before it are othen changed to /n/ while stops before or after /n/ are often changed to /g/.

   (cf CA [qaraDa] L corrodere but OE gnagan. The medial /r/ in this example was changed to /n/ by EC with the final /n/ of the supine.

   Then the initial /q/ was changed to /g/ because of the presence of /n/. We notice that the V in 1 has an additional /n/. This is a feature of the language that clusters. It occurs where the main stress occurs in the CA cognate form, possibily to balance the two clusters, the initial and the final, and it is usually a nasal /m / or /n/.

   Ex : [qaɜbarah] clympre (see 14.16)

2. In this example the N has undergone deletion while the V has undergone clustering which brings the final /ɜ/ to initial position as /g/ because of the presence of /m/ in this word.

3. Here the N has retained the original pattern while the V has undergone clustering and the cors of /q/ : /c/, while the N has the cors /q/ : /g/ a cors that often occurs when /q/ is in final position.

In the examples given above the V has undergone clustering and the N has not. Could this be a tendency in OE? Observation of such forms reveals that there are many N also which have undergone heavy clustering. The examples above were chosen in order to illustrate the difference between the two tendencies, but one can give examples of verbs which have undergone deletions and N which have undergone clustering like :

Ex : [qarmah] cruma, (bite fragment) [qambarah] crumb (bent, crouching) cuman [qadima] (to come). Here the V has one syl deleted and the N have been clustered.

18.3 Phonetic tendencies :

We shall now examine some of the differences in phonetic cors. Differences we have noted before are :

1. The change of /h/ to /f/ (9.5)

2. The change of /f/ /θ/ and other fricatives to /h/ (9.13)

   These two tendencies oppose each other. /h/ is a favourite in OE and the tendency to change other fricatives to /h/ is the dominant tendency, nevertheless in some forms /h/ is changed to /f/. /f/ is often brought to initial position in words where it occurs. This is the mark of a favourite. In one of the dialtects of OE /f/ is a favourite, though not in the main dialect.

3. We have given examples of the change of /s/ and other fricative to /θ/ in OE. This is a main tendency, but along side of this tendency, we find that /s/ is also a favourite and just as some words beginning with /s/ have changed to /θ/ others begining with /θ/ have been changed to /s/ or have retained the original /s/.

In consequence words of the same root may begin with either /θ/ or /s/ as shown in (9.6).

18.4 (s) and (š) :

Similarly /s/ and /š/ replace each other in OE, so that some words beginning with /s/ in CA have /š/ in OE. The opposite tendency also exists together with words from the same root retaining the original sounds.

Ex : CA [šæms) OE sunn (sun) /š/ : /s/
CA [safinah] OE scip (ship) /s/ : /š/
CA [eθm] OE sin (sin) /θ/ : /s/

18.5 /d/ as favourite :

Although /d/ is not a favourite in OE we find a group of words where /d/ replaces other stops and is removed to initial position. In this group /d/ is clearly a favourite.

Ex : deóp [ɜamiyq] (deep), deáf [Taraš] (deaf), deór [ɜaziyz] (dear) dumb [bucm] dagger [xingar] (dagger) draca [taniyn] dead (dead) (see 10.2) drownian [Rariqa] (see 17.11).

Sometimes there are versions of the same word one beginning with /d/ and another retaining the original stop.

Ex : dolh gore CA [garH] (wound).

The first N has the cors /d/ : /g/ the second retains /g/ but has deleted the final /H/.

18.6 Medial infix :

A group of OE words, after reducing three syl words to have two consonants, introduces /w/ submitting to the rule for two syl verbs, then moves it to form a cluster with the first consonant according to the clustering rules developed later. It is a fairly large group and in consequence we may have two versions of the same word like :

Ex : dól and dwol (dull) CA (Da:l), cuman and cwomon (to come) CA [qadima] sup [qoduman).

In (8.3) we have shown that a group of words has the cors /h/ : /q/ contrary to the main tendency which is /c/ : /q/ in OE. There is also a minor tendency to replace /h/ by /g/ and in a few words (possibly loan words) /g/ by /h/.

Ex : gad (point) CA (Had), gast, CA (Hašd) (L hostis)

One may come across the same word having both phonemes : Like hreód gryd CA [gariyd] (reed)

It is the same word coming from two different sources. The first has changed the medial diphthong to /eo/ while the second has changed it to /y/ which was probably pronounced as a long /i/ or possibly a diphthong.

18.7 (b) Vs (c) in OE :

/b/ is a favourite in OE (9.14) but in one dialect /c/ is the favourite, and words having /b/ as well as other sounds are changed to /c/.

Ex : CA [bard] OE ceald (cold), CA [fæc] OE ceáce /f/ : /c/ by EC L fauces, CA [baqar] L pecus, but OE ceáp (cattle) in the OE word /c/ has been removed to initial position in the last example in preference to /b/.

Sometimes a word which begins with a semi-Vl acquires an initial /c/ in OE to achieve the pat given in (14.16).

Ex : CA [nesl] OE cnósl (offspring, progeny).

It apppears that it is the language which favours heavy clustering that favoures /c/ because in it /c/ is most often the chief initial stop in such clusters. More research needs to be done on the subject for sometimes the heavy clustering occurs with other stops as initial sound like bricg, CA [cubry] (bridge).

While studying in OE one is constantly aware of the differnt currents the language has submitted to. It is true they are mainly Germanic tendencies and may be traced in other Germanic languages as well, which suggests that these differences had taken place long before the Germanic tribes settled in Great Britain. It suggests also that these tribes had not lived together all the time, but may have been separated for long periods of time, long enough to cause their languages to differ. That would account for the cross currents found in Germanic tongues. Such research would throw light upon the very early history of the Gremanic people and could be of very great interest.

CHAPTER XIX

ON STRUCTURE IN CA

19.1 Parts of speech in CA :

Since earliest times Arab grammarians have divided CA forms into three broad categories. The noun, the verb and the particle. Each of these categories has numerous subcategories, whose features have been meticulously studies and recorded since the seventh century. Such details need not concern us here. But we shall try to give an outline or brief sketch of the language in order to compare it with other related languages.

1. The noun : The noun is defined as any form that is inflected for case or number. This category includes nouns proper, bi-functional forms that act as both nouns or adjectives, depending on their role in the sentence and adjectives. It includes also all pronouns as a sub class, that is personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, relative pronouns and reflexisive pronouns.

19.2 Bi-functional forms :

The bi-functional forms are of special interest because each of them may be considered a whole sentence in deep structure and carries the semantic content of a sentence. The information it gives depends on its pattern. Let us look at the nouns first.

Ex : From the V [qatæla] one may derive the following nouns :

1. [qatl] killing, an abstract N
2. [qatlah] fem N, a particular way of killing
3. [maqtal] a particular killing, or crime

Bifunctional forms :

1. [qa:tel] person who has killed (killer)
2. [qatiyl] person who has been killed
3. [maqtuwl] person killed. The orientation here is on the condition of the killing, whereas in the preceding form the emphasis was on the person
4. [qatæ:l] something whose main function is killing, or for whom it is the distinctive feature. It is used for a shark, poison, an epidemic etc.

Such forms can give much information in compact form. It is one of the features of economy found in CA. We notice that pattern 4 has a long

final Vl which denoted in the SS of the language extention, something widespread or reaching out.

19.3 Adjectives :

Adjectives can occur as attribute or as predicate in CA. An adjective takes the same inflection as the noun it modifies, if it is an attribute, but does not if it is a predicate.

As attribute it denotes that the characteristic is innate, as predicate it denotes that the characteristic does not have to be innate, it can be temporary, suggested, acquired.

Ex : [al gæ:reyah] [al gæmiylah] (the comely girl). It is a fact or innate characteristic.

[æl gæ:reyah gamilah] (the girl is comely). It implies, I find her comely, you may not.

The distinction is no longer so clear in Mod Eng, but in Mod Fr much of this usage old usage is retained. (the forms above are cognates in CA and Mod Eng).

An adjective may take the place of a noun, if it does not modify a noun and is preceded by the definite article. Such adjectives are found also in Mod Eng (the rich, the good etc). In CA almost any adjective may be so used.

An adjective may be used in apposition, if it is preceded by the definite article. This feature is found in many IE languages including Mod Eng.

Ex : Abou Bakr A'Sedik (Abou Bakr, The True)
Soliman Al Hakim (Soliman The Wise).

19.4 The verb :

When discussing CA verbs we have seen how the same semantic content may be used to produce a transistive, intransitive reflexive, impersonal verb. AV may have two agents or have two objects. One may attenuate or exaggerate or augment the semantic content. All this regulation of the verb may be performed by means of change of pattern or prefixes. This gives the verb very great range and potentials.

Much of this usage of verbs as well as much of the functions of bifunctionai forms have been lost in modern languages.

19.5 The verb to be :

The verb to be is called [in'næ] in CA. It is the RV from which the present of the V be in Mod Eng is derived (see 7.16). But in CA it is used only when emphasis or other stylistic effects are desired. As a copula it is elided. In other words, CA makes use of the negative as well as the positive features of language (in several ways) so that the absence of verb in a sentence denotes that the V is copula in the present and that it has been elided. In L we come across such structure occasionally (see below 7.16).

While the V be is elided in CA most of the time, it still takes as predicate the same categories of the language that it takes as predicate in Mod Eng.

Ex : [huwa Tawiyl] (he is tall) adj as pred to V be
[huwa fil qu'nah] (he is in the garden) adverbial phrase as pred.
[huwa sabæ:H] (he is a swimmer) pred nominal

The structures above are the same in CA and Mod Eng except that the V be is elided in CA. All the forms are also cognates except the prep /fi/ and 'in'. In CA /fi/ denotes entry into since /f/ is the symbol of opening. making way and /i/ of going from one point to another. /in/ was originally a prefix and is still so in CA (7.21) For /al/ and /the/ (see 11.19).

19.6 Particles :

Under the heading "particles" come all the forms that may not be inflected for case and number, and all that may not take tense. It includes as sub-categories, prepositions, conjunctions, particles that pertain to verbs (as in German) and also some adverbs of place. All these are called in CA "the uninflectionables". It is a feature of economy of the language. Where inflection is unnecessary it is not allowed. It is not a feature peculiar to CA however, but to all Semitic tongues, and it may be found in L and OE also. It is true that some forms that are uninflectionable in CA have become inflectionable in L and OE due to a change of category, but on the whole the ancient rules concerning inflection still apply.

Ex :

L	CA	OE	Mod Eng
hinc	[hunæcæ]	heonan	hence

The above adverbs are uninflectionable in the three languages. They are also cognate forms. L has deleted the medial and final Vl but retained the consonants, while OE has given it a final /n/ by EC.

19.7 Theory of Syntax in CA :

Arab grammarians have been very much concerned with the theory of language since the six cent A.D. In fact there are very great volumes where such theory is recorded, and where each category and sub-category, each irregular item is set down and described in great detail. If one looks at the theory of CA one imagens something very different from L and OE. If one looks at the language itself one finds remarkable similarities. To study the theory of syntax in CA is outside the scope of this work, and it is just as well for theory depends very much on individual vision of language, and on the accepted norm among each group of grammarians. For us it is much more to the point to compare some CA with some L and OE structures. To illustrate the point let us analyse this sentence.

[zayd yænæ:m] (zayd sleeps)

This sentence is made of a subject and verb. How is it to be analysed, is it a simple or a complex sentence? Transformational grammar (see Chomsky 1965) would consider this a simple sentence, what is called a kernel sentence. But an Arabic grammar teacher would never allow a student who analysed it as a simple sentence to pass his exam. In order to pass his exam he would have to give the following analysis.

Zayd : proper N, subject of sentence.

[yænæ:m] V in the simple present tense whose subject is on the lower level the pronoun [huwa] (he), and the V together with its subject, act as predicate to the proper N Zayd.

The reason the student has to give this analysis is that Arab grammarians consider the natural order of sentences to be VSO, while Mod Emg grammarians consider it to be SVO.

The sentence is the same but we have two different analyses, two different ways of looking at language. To the reader unfamiliar with the methods of CA grammer, analysis of sentences on two levels may come as a surprise, but as early as the seventh century we find Arab grammarian analysing languages on two levels. This is because CA is a language of

great economy, and therefore much ellipsis is allowed in certain structures. In consequence analysis on a deep and a surface structure began very early.

19.8 CA VSO or SVO language :

Let us return to the question which the analysis above has introduced. IS CA a VSO or a SVO language. A statistic count of a CA passage has given the raito of 7:8 and a statistic count of an OE passage has given the ration of 5:8. In OE we find a stronger tendency to use the order SVO, while in CA a stronger tendency to use VSO, but in both language either kind of sentence is perfectly grammatical and correct.

Is it a matter of style then? CA is an inflectional language and much is allowed for the sake of style, but what concerns us here is the norm, the common usage of the language. In order to understand the motivation behind sentence structure one has to bear in mind that CA is a language based on SS. Sentence order is significant on this level as on the other levels. Supposing we analyses a S like [nusæ϶iducæ] (we shall help you) whose order is fixed and obligatory.

/nu/ : personal pronoun first pers. pl. (we, L nos)

[sæ϶idu] :V in the simple present tense.

[cæ] pers pro, objective case, second pers sing.

In the above sentence the order is SVO. Now let us look at this same sentence in the past tense. [sæ϶ædnacæ] (we have helped you).

the order is V+S+O.

This is the norm, because according to the SS of the language the present action (and the present may be used for the near future also in CA as in Mod Eng) the verb is yet to come, the action is not done or finished yet, but in a past action the V comes before because relative to the subject it is after the subject, behind it, something already accomplished. Let us take another example :

[zayd fi l gun'nah] (zayd is in the garden)

Here the sentence is SVO, but [hašš'am zayd æ+sæyf] (zayd smashed the sword).

The order here is VOS. The reason is that in the second sentence the V is a transitive V. The action is the important thing, whereas in the first sentence the V is of no consequence and is elided in CA. Supposing we ask: who smashed the sword? The answer would be : [zayd hæšˈšæmæ sæ+yf]. If we asks what was smashed? We would get the answer [æ+sæyf] or [a+sæyf huš ˈšimæ] (see 7.14 for passive voice).

In this second answer there is no mention of Zayd at all. We notice that the sentence order caters to the semantic content. This is part of the system of SS which underlies CA structures.

19.9 CA and Modern English :

Comparison of some CA and Mod Eng sentences :

Mod Eng	CA
Here is the book adv+be+NP	[hunæ: æ+citæ:b] adv+ø+NP

We notice that the sentence order is the same except that the V be is elided in CA. The order is the common usage in CA and in Mod Eng, because [huna] (here) an adv of place, begins with /h/ which is the symbol of pointing (all demostratives begin with /h/ in CA).

Although this is the usual order it is not obligatory in either language and one may say :

The book is here [æ+citæ:b huna]

But semantically it gives a different orientation in CA and is usually in answer to the question, "What is here?" rather than "Where is the book?" The stress is on 'book' and therefore it comes first. Is this the only structure where there is resemblance in CA and Mod Eng? Let us see :

Mod Eng	CA	Parts of speech
1. Who has the book? 2. Give me the book 3. Will you give me the book? aux+pro+V+ ind obj+direct obj	[mænHafazal citæ:b] [aæɘTinil citæ:b] [æ+taɘTinil citæ:b]	Int pro+V+NP V+pro+NP Part+pro+V+ind obj + direct obj.

The three sentences have the same structure in CA and Mod Eng.

1. In the first sentence the int pro comes first because it is the regulator, or the most important single item that sets the tone of the whole sentence, therefore it has to come first, in accord with the rules of SS. One cannot say in Mod Eng anymore than one can say in CA.
   Has the book who* [hafazal citæb mæn]*.

This is forbidden by the SS of the language.

2. The second sentence is an imperative, a direct command and in both languages the V has to come first, and in both languages the pronoun of the second pers is elided (7.13) unless special orientation is desired.

If we say :
Give me you the book [æƎTini ænta æl citæ:b]

It is an acceptable sentence in both language but it has a special stress pattern and intonation to denotes that I ask it of you not him. Supposing we change the sentence order to bring the pronoun to initial position.
You give me the book [ænta aƎTini+æl citæ:b]

This sentence also has a different intonation having the main stress upon the pronoun "you" or [anta]. In Mod Eng it may be even more acceptable than the one before it. In CA it acquires a new shade of meaning. It is more emphatic than the one before it. (the first item is always the most important) and it is more of a command, a reprimand than the one preceding it. By contrast with the common order having the verb first, it suggests that it is your duty, a duty that you have not accomplished so far.

3. Sentence three has a direct object and an indirect object. In both Mod Eng and CA the indirect object /ni/ in CA (me in Mod Eng) comes first. Although the particle /a-/ which is here an interrogative has been lost in Mod Eng, it is replaced by the aux will, and this aux comes first exactly as the ancient particle that it has replaced comes first. We know that interrogative particles or pronouns come first as regulators in CA; (see above) and in Mod Eng. Supposing we change the sentence to have a phrase instead of the indirect object.
   "Will you give the book to me? " [a+TaƎti: acitæ:b ilaya?]

In this sentence the proposition and its object come last in both Mod Eng and CA and the direct object precedes them. In CA this change of structure has a corresponding change in semantic content. The

implication is "Will you give the book to me and not to him"? In Mod Eng it may or may not have this implication for the correspondence between structure and semanitc content is not a one to one relationship as it is in CA. Nevertheless the change in position takes place, a phenomenon one comes across rather often. (see below).

We have given examples above of some simple sentences. Let us try one having an objective complement.

Ex : I found him mad [wagad + tu + hu magnoun]
S+V+O+Obj C comp V+S+O+Obj C

The difference is that in CA the verb comes first because the subject is a pro-form that is attached to the V and in the past tense it comes after the V for reasons given above.

We know that OE has replaced these pro-forms found in CA and in L by the personal pronouns. Can we not use the presonal pronoun in CA before the V as it is used in OE and Mod Eng?

We can in CA, but that would give a new orientation to the sentence.
Ex : [æna wægatuhu magnoun] (I found him mad). Now the order is the same in both CA and Mod Eng.

The presence of the personal pro here emphasises the fact that it was I and no one else who found him mad. Other people may find him sane. In Mod Eng one would say, "For my part" or "It was I who" in the place of the pers pro in the CA sentence.

19.10 Comparison of OE, CA and Mod Eng :

If we compare between the sentence order in the Mod Eng and OE sentence below :

OE cwom Maria in dag-red Maria came in the dawn (red of day)
CA [qadimat mariya fil fægr] [maria qadimat fil fægr]

OE has the order VS pred, and the Mod Eng sentence has the order SV pred. Which order shall we use in CA? In CA one may use either order, both sentences are grammatically correct, but if one is relating a story, and in a story the action is the most important thing, one would introduce the verb first to connect the sentence semantically with the action in the sentence before it, but if one wishes to dramatize the entrance of Maria or

if one is not relating a strory but answering the question who came in the dawn? One would place the noun first.

Let us take another simple sentence :

He ge-sloh XXX dragona (the words of this S are cogantes in the)
he slew XXX dragons three languages

1. [sæHala XXX tæniyn]
2. [huwa sæHala XXX tæniyn]
3. [saHala huwa XXX tæniyn]

One may give the facts of the sentence above with three different orientations in CA. If no pronoun is used, then it is stating a common occurence, one does not wish to dramatize anything. If the pers pro is placed first then it is to draw attention to the fact that it is he who slew the dragons, he himself. It concentrates attention on him. The third sentence has an order that is different from the norm, for the two preceding ones are more common. In the SS of the language this can denote contrast or negation. Here it can come in answer to the question asking if it was someone else.

Let us compare the sentences below in OE, CA and Mod Eng :

þe frysa hine gewraþ
The Frisians bound him
[æl farsiyin rabatu+hu]

In the sentence above OE places the object before the V, CA and Mod Eng do not. In CA one may bring the verb first if one desires to give the sentence a different orientation but the object does not come before the verb in such a strucuture. Mod Eng observes this rule which is not observed in either OE or L.

Mec seo friþe mæg fedde	obj + adj + S + V
The kind woman fed me	adj + S +V + obj
(æl maræ'h a+ Tayebah aTƐamat+ni)	S + adj + V + obj

In the sentence above the pers pro in the objective case comes at the begining of the sentence in OE. In CA and in Mod Eng it does not come at the beginning of the sentence but has to come after the V. The difference between CA on the one hand and Mod Eng and OE on the other is that in CA an adj has to come after the N it modifies, except for rare stylistic effects. This is dictated by the SS of the languages since the N is

more important than the adj which comes as an addition, modification or explanation to it.

We notice that many of the rules that govern CA structure govern Mod Eng also. Had these rules been in OE we would have found the matter quite natural, had they been found in L we should have decided that it is through the influence of L. But they exist in neither L or OE.

19.11 Comparison of sentence order in L, CA and Mod Eng :

After examining some of the structures of OE and CA, we shall examine some of the structures of CA and L, using the same method, comparing them with those of Mod Eng.

The first and simplest structure is an equation

EO dux [æna l qa:e'd] I am the leader

[æna qæ:e'd] I am a leader

The sentence above may be said in two different ways in CA and Mod Eng and in one way in L. For the more accurate expression that the def art affords in CA and Mod Eng, L has to use more elaborate means.

If we take another simple structure.

eó Róman I go to Rome [ini æ:win ila ro:mah]

In the L structure the N Rome is the object of eó, in CA and Mod Eng it is the object of the preposition. In CA one may not use such a structure because the semantic content relies on the underlying SS. In the SS of the language a difference is made in structure between action falling upon an object and going from one place to another. The prep [ila] is made of /i/ which in the SS of CA marks going from one point of another, while /l/ is the symbol of extention. That is the reason the two together form a preposition that signifies goint to, or giving to. Its semantic content is equivalent to Mod Eng "to" approximately. In certain structures L dipenses with such a distinction. The V [awæ:] in CA, the cog of L eó is an intransitive V, here but in cases as the above L merges case just as we have seen verbs merged in the preceding chapters.

19.12 Comparison of sentence order in L and CA :

What are the sentence orders allowed in L? L is an inflectional language whose SS has been destroyed so that there are almost no restrictions on sentence order. A sentence like matrem puella amat (the girl

loves the mother) may have the following order : SVO VSO OVS VOS OSV VOS.

CA is also an inflectional langauge but it is governed by an underlying system of SS which imposes restrictions upon it. In CA we have the orders :

1. SVO 2-VSO 3-VOS :

In the orders above it is always the V or the subject that occupy the crucial initial position, never the object. For stylistic purposes the object may precede the subject as in 3, but not the V, which as a trans V has precedence over the whole sentance. (for L sent see A. Hill P. 467, 1958).

Let us compare a few more L and CA sentences.
Haec studia adulèscentiam alunt, senectutem oblectant. (cicero)

These studies nurture youth and delight old age.
[tilcæ a+derasa : t tufi :d a+ šæbæ: b wæ tos3ed a šuyux]

In the above structure L places the V after the object, while CA and Mod Eng place it before the object. The difference between CA and Mod Eng in the above structure is that CA uses the def art to give the a general and universal quality, while in Mod Eng the def. art was originally a demostrative, so that it cannot be used here for it would give the particular and not the general.

If we compare a V that takes two objects in L and CA
Racillius primum me sententiam rogavit (cicero)
Racilius asked me my opinion first
[racilan sæa°la + ni rae°iy awalan]

Again L places the adv first, the V last and the direct and indirect objects after each other, while CA and Mod Eng place V immediately after NP and the indirect object first, then the direct object and the adv. last. We have the same order of sentence in Mod Eng and CA, and the same trans V [sæa°la]. The Vl stop in the CA V is interpreted as /c/ in Mod Eng. [OE ascian].

In L the V is rogō, CA cog [raga:] it means to hope, plead for, to beg, and it takes an objective complement and not two objects, in CA.

Considering the immense lapse of time between CA and L one should expect such differences.

19.13 Conclusion :

The brief sketch we have given of CA and the comparions with L, OE and Mod Eng has revealed something rather unexpected. It reveals that as structure it is not L or OE that are close to CA but Mod Eng. Considering that chronologically Mod Eng is the furtherest from CA, and that it is a language that has undergone many changes and submitted to many influences, the fact is extraordinary. How can a modern language turn back nearly ten thousand years and revive the significance of structures that were lost to its immediate ancestors? It seems incredible, but it is a fact that the researcher has to face and if possible account for.

The clue we have is that CA, as we have often pointed out, is a language based on SS. When Mod Eng discarded inflectional endings it became imperative that it find another means of pointing out the relationship of one word to another, so it had to fall back on the ancient system of SS, to obtain such coherence. While it has not taken the finer details of the SS of CA, it has taken the major characteristics. And much of the broad outline.

Such an assumption answers our immediate question as to why Mod Eng has returned to SS, but it does not answer the question as to how this dormant or potential knowledge was revived. Does man have a priori knowledge of language that enables him to choose the right structure, even when it has not been operative for centuries? Much research needs to be done on the subject. Luckily we have a wealth of data to research upon.

We notice that this phenomenon is not restricted to structure only but does appear on the phonetic and morphological level as we have pointed previously in this work. OE has changed CA /y/ to /g/ but Mod Eng has changed it back to /y/. L has changed CA long Vl to /l/ and Mod Fr has changed them many of them back to a long Vl.

We believe that research on the subject may throw light on yet unknown potentials of the human mind.

CHAPTER XX

SOUND SYMBOLISM IN CA

20.1 Sound Symbolism :

One of the main characteristics that distinguish human beings is that they are able to use the vocal chords at will to produce significant sounds which we call speech. Numerous theories have been forwarded as explanation of this phenomenon but none of them has given an adequate answer. At last the key to the mystery was found in the SS (sound symbolism) of CA. Here we are able to lay our hands on the foundations of speech, the very beginnings of language. CA is one of the oldest, quite possibly the oldest language in the world. In it one can see sounds, each in its primeval role, and trace step by step the process of word formation, group formations and how the rules of word and sentence formation began to function then finally the colossal structure that has the ability to produce an infinite number of new words and new sentences.

20.2 The sound hieroglyph :

The sound hiegroglyph is a symbolic representation of an action or condition through sound. Just as written language began as picture or visual hieroglyphes so has spoken language began as sound hieroglyphes. CA has retained these sound hieroglyphes intact. Each Vl, each consonant, each pattern, each string has its significance on the level of SS. While this system is the first means of human speech, surprisingly it is the most economic and most highly productive. It contains many advantages that its offsprings do not possess.

In the succeeding pages we shall give the dominant or most important role of each Vl and cons as well as some of the roles of patterns. In this outline we cannot go into the very subtle and fine functions that emanate from this basic role, but we hope that this dominant feature will enable the reader to understand how man first began to make coherent, singificant sounds.

20.3 The role of Vl on the level of SS :

On the level of SS Vl, semi-Vl, long Vl and diphthongs are the regulators of quantity and quality of number, size, increase or diminishing as well as other spatial qualities. This is done by means of symbolic representation as well as contrast between them.

Short Vl. In CA on the level of SS there are only three Vl /a/, /u/, /i/. The gradation of Vl that one can hear on the phonetic level are only allophones of one of these three. They have no phonemic status.

/a/ the most ponderous of the three is the symbol of the static, the passive. It occurs on the morphological level where the static, the unchanging, the permanent is expressed and on the syntactic level it is the mark of the undergoer of the action or object.

/i/ gives the lips when it is ponouneed a long slit-like shape. It is symbolic of connection, going from one point to another, linking two entities together and on the syntactic level it is the mark of the dative, the instrumental, the genitive, the locative when the orientation is toward action (from such to such a place).

/u/ is a pursing of the lips. It is a symbol of compactness, of concentration, of amassing together in compact form, and also of reduction through shrinking. On the syntactic level it is the mark of the subject of the sentence (concentration of attention) and also the doer of the action (concentration of energy or power).

Ex : 1. [al waladu fil gan'nah] the boy is in the garden 'subject'.
2. [al waladu yal3ab] the boy is playing 'doer of action'.
3. [raaeytu l wæladæ] I saw the boy 'object'.
4. [citabu l waladi] the boy's book 'genitive case'.

1. In this sentence the word /waladu/ ends in U because he is the subject of the sentence, while the preposition /fi/ has an /i/ to express the relationship of extention from one point to another (boy in garden). The word garden/ gan'nati/ has an initial /a/ because it is a static entity and a final /i/ because it is the place or location he went to.

2. In this second sentence the word / waladu/ has /u/ because he is the doer of the action, while the tense marker in the verb comes before the verb not after it to denote that this is the present, an action that is not yet complete or that is being done now, in process.

3. In sentence three the final pro-form is -tu to point out the first pers, contraction, hence concentration on self. Had it been ta, the meaning would have been "you saw the boy", because /a/ is a static entity, hence a different person. The word /wælada/ has a final /a/ because he is the undergoer of the action here.

4. In sentence four [citae:b] begins by an initial /i/ because it is a means to reading or writing (instrumental) /u/ in final position denotes that this is the subject of the string, while the word /waladi/ has a final /i/ because the book belongs to him, one entity to another. (genitive case).

In the usage of the prefix MV- these connections are even more clear. MV is a prefix made of M which is the most ponderous of the static cons and a Vl. Being ponderous and having an articulation that symbolizes closure, finality (closing of lips) /m/ as a prefix has the power to change the dynamic into the static, that is a verb into a N or adj. The quality of this N or adj is dependent on the Vl that comes after it. /a/ gives (as shown above) the undergoer of the action or the static, hence a particular place or location, something that does not move.

/i/ gives the instrumental, something that enables one to do something, connects one entity with other. /u/ signifies the doer of the action, a concentration of power or energy.

Ex : [Sarafae] to spend RV

[maSraf] bank, place where, a static entity hence /a/

[masrouf] what was spent, undergoer of action /a/

[mutaSarif] in control, ruling, doer of action hence /u/

[miSraf] canal, means of distributing water, hence /i/ instrumental.

From the above example we perceive that each change of Vl gives new semantic content, because each Vl has its individual role in the system of SS.

Long Vl : While short Vl are symbolilc of basic actions, long Vl are symbolic of increase, augmentation, extention of these basic conditions. In consequence most CA N take a long Vl in the second syl in the pl.

Ex : [walad] pl [awlae:d), [gan'nah] [ganae:yen] also [ganae:t]

This second N has two pl each has its special significance in the language. The word is a fem N, but it has a fem pl and another pl. The fem pl speaks of particular gardens not any gardens, the fem, whether sing or pl, always denotes an individual instance in contrast to the masc which always speaks of the general, the universal, the common. The pl that does not have the final -t, the mark of the fem, speaks ofgardens as a class or as a quality (like sand, butter). Both plurals have a long Vl added to denote the increase.

Let us now take one word and trace what a change of Vl nuclues can denote. The word is [dæ:r]. It means house in CA but has come to mean door in OE. It is a metonymy referring to the whole by the part.

[du:ru] is the Pl, its OE cog is duru. It means a number of houses concentration of buildings, being a pl it has a long Vl, but to denote concentration it has the Vl /u:/.

The next Pl is [diya:r] this word has an /i/ followed by /ya:/ hence extention, many houses in an stretching or great area. It usually refers to the houses of a clan or city, not several houses in a limited area.

The word [dæwa:r] from the same root does not mean many houses it means one wide, great house. When /w/ is introduced as infix in a N or V that means a widening movement, just as the movement of the lips when pronouncing it is a widening movement.

The words given above are found in Germanic languages as Gothic daur, CA [dæwa:r], ON dyr, Skr dvar, CA [diya:r]. They have lost the significance that the difference in Vl nucleus gives them in CA and all mean door because the system of SS has become obsolete in these languages, but it is these ancient features that are the cause of the difference between one Germanic language and another in cases as the above.

Again if we compare :

1. [ɜae:lem] 2. [ɜaeliym] 3. [ɜaelae:m] 4. [ɜ ael'la:mah]

All the words above come from the RV [ɜ alima] to know, to be aware of. All the four N have the features + masc + human.

1. The first means a scholar. It has an initial long Vl because an initial long Vl denotes growth or expantion in place. It is someone who is learning, gaining knowledge. This pat always denotes the doer of the action.

2. The second has /iy/ in the second syl. /i/ denotes action upon self, connecting the external with the internal, reflexive action. The pref /in-/ in CA gives reflexive action inside self. In consequence this pat denotes internal action and action affecting or colouring the whole being. He who has imbued much knowledge, to the extent that he is an expert.

3. This pattern having a long final Vl, and the long Vl an /a/ denotes a permanent quality of learning or knowledge, hence a past master of an art or science. Whatever entity carries this pat is usually extraordinary like [burkae:n] (volcano). [fayd] means flood but [fayada:n] means a deluge; complete over flooding.

4. When the fem ending is given to this pat it means someone of very great incomparable knowledge. Unique, unparalleled. It is this word that one finds in Old Icelandic as ollamah, it retains its original meaning and the cors /ɘ/ : /o/. We notice it has a medial GS which corroborates the effect of very great ability or knowledge.

From the examples above we can discern that a long Vl means increase but a diphthong or an extra syl can mean very great or extraordinary increase. While we cannot go into greater detail here the point to remember is that there is a gradation beginning with short Vl for the singular and then increase to long Vl then diphthongs then an extra syl depending on the semantic content required.

SS of Verb patterns : In CA there are two, three and four consonantal verbs each of these groups has its stress patterns, and each of these patterns has its significance on the level of SS.

20.5 Two syl V :

Two syl V may have the pat CV : CV, CVCV : and CVC'CV The pat CV:CV has a long Vl in the first syl. In this pat the main stress falls on the first syl and it denotes action, growth, expantion or movement in place. The opposite pat CVCV: denotes action, movement or expantion towards an exernal object or away from the internal, past the internal towards outside space. The ending, a long Vl signifies lack of boundary, hence away from indefinitely.

The third pat CVC'CV having a GS denotes the doubling or augmentation of whatever action the other two may symbolize. It is usually transitive, whether the other TV are trans or intras V.

Ex : [nae:mae) (to sleep) [naemæ:] (to grow) [naem'mae] to make grow [Ta:lae] (to grow tall) [Talae:] (to sweep past over) [Tal'lae] to protrude, to jut out.
[sae:lae] (to spread) [saelae:] to be bored with, to desert, [sæl'læ] to draw to pull out sword or knife.

[qa:la] (to say) [qal'lae] to grow less, [qalæ:] to shun, desert
[Ta:fæ] (to go round), [Tafae:] to flow over beyond,
[Taf'fæ] (to over flow, to spring or fall over).

In the verbs above we notice that the change in the position of the long Vl brings about change in the semantic content even though the consonants remain the same. While a GS always denotes intensification or augmentation of action.

We are told that 2 syl V are some of the oldest in the language. The simple, smooth flowing stress pattern is symbolic in these verbs of simple, spontaneous, instictive actions that do not require much thought or planning. While 3 cons V of even pattern and systematic gradation denote action that involves a certain degree of skill or thought, as we shall see below

20.6 W as infix :

In the SS of CA /w/ because of its manner of articulation (widening of the lips) is the symbol of more space, hence wider range for whatever action the V or N it occurs in signifies.

Ex : [qa:mae] (to stand up) [qa:wamae] (to resist, to stand up against)
[daemae] (to last, to be durable) [dæ:waema] to persevere a long while, to be diligent in persevering

20.7 Three cons V :

These V have a stress pat of /1 2 3/ which gives an orderly systematic gradation. In consequence they are symbolic of deliberate, conscious, skillful, orderly actions.

Ex : [daerasae] (to study) [xæbæzæ] (to bake) [ɜaegana] (to knead dough)
[wazaena] (to weigh) [falaqa] (to cleave) [qaraae'] (to read)
[faHara] (to carve) [cataebae] (to write) [rasaema] (to draw pictures)

As we have shown earlier (6.3) the GS pat means augmentation of whatever quality the RV has and the long initial Vl means reciprocal action or action by two agents, extention of action. Sometimes such extention means a softening of action since a long Vl is softer, less abrupt than a short one.

Ex : [Haraba] (to pierce with a harpoon) [Hae:raba] (to fight)
[salima] (to be safe) [sae:lamae] (to live in peace with, a reciprocal action) [sael'lamae] (to submit to, to surrender)

20.8 The pattern of four cons V :

These verbs have the sress pat /3 1 2 3/. In comparison with the smooth movement of 2 cons V and the systematic gradation of 3 cons V, these V sound rather jerky, ungainly graceless, unbalanced. In the SS of the language this pat denotes what is not normal, beyond or below the norm, the moderate, the even, usually the unbalaced, the graceless the abrupt or ugly.

Ex : [caerbasae] (to fall head over heels) [halwasae] (to hallucinate)
[xatrafa] (to be delirioius) [hancar] (to hobble about aimlessly)
[carcaeba] (to upset things and make them untidy)
[caeЭbara]to have a clod-like ungainly shape [qanbara] (to sit cramped up)
[haerwaela] (to walk in long trailing robe with uneven step)
[harbaeda] (to tear in uneven tufts) [qarTama] to cut with the teeth, gnaw in disorderly bites.

20.9 Frequentative Verbs :

Frequentative verbs may be derived from two syl V by the repetition of one syl. On the level of SS they are symbolic of repetitive action or action done in phases or commenced again.

Ex : [caeb'ba] (to pour) [cabcaebae] to pour little by little, to spill or splash while moving liquid
[car'ra] to run or go or ride around, to turn round
[carcara] to go on and on in circles. It is used figuratively for speech on and on to chatter. (OE ceorian is its cog), or it is used when a knitting is undone
[tæm'ma] to finish, end, complete
[tæmtæmæ] to keep repeating the same thing again, to grumble inaudiably. Its Mod Eng cog is to mutter (for change of pat see 12.6).

. **Consonants in SS :** While Vl and patterns are symbolic of the general tendencies of the language, the traits that may be common to the semantic content of thousands of verbs, the consonants to the contrary are symbolic of particular and distinctive actions. Each group of consonants has its role and each consonant has its role inside its group. The cons of CA may be divided into three basic groups on the level of SS. The moderate, the static and the strong or violent (see 19.3).

20.10 /r/ as symbol :

The first consonant we shall deal with as symbol is /r/. Our choice of this cons is simply because it is the most familiar to the modern mind in its symbolic role. We use it all the time in Mod Eng without being aware of its symbolic value. In the SS of CA /r/ is the symbol of repetition, particularly if it appears in initial position. It was chosen as the symbol for repetition because it is a trill. The tongue moves again and again repetetively inside the mouth.

What is the first repetitive action that man has observed? It is the action of rain. Rain does not fall in one short movement but keeps falling on and on, in waves and each wave is made of millions of drops. In CA we find numerous words denoting rain, most of them begin with /r/.

Ex : [rax'xa], [ra∂'∂æ], [raz'zæ], [raš'šæ], [rawae:] [ra:qa]

All the V above speak of the movement of water. We shall deal with the first three first, since they portray three different kinds of rain.

The first [rax'xa] has /r/ to denote repetition, in initial position, and in the second syl there is the strong fricative /x/.

Moreover the pattern is that of GS, which signifies augmented movement. The word means heavy rainfall, a downpour. Rain in great waves. The next [ra∂'∂æ] has a fricative also in the second syl, but a fricative that does not come from far back in the throat like /x/ but to the contrary it is pronounced at the tip of the tongue, contact of tongue with upper teeth. It is a much lighter sound. And the word denotes light rain.

The fourth V [ra z'zæ] means also to rain, but the fricative used has a buzzing sound. It means the rain that makes a sound while falling. The skies screaming, or screeching. We notice that in the three verbs the last syl has fricatives, that is because fricatives are generally symbolic of tremelous, wavelike movements. While the pat is that of GS because rain is made of more than one movement. It is a mutiplied movement, hence the double consonants.

The third V [raš'ša] has also got a fricative, and it means to spray with water again, /š/ here represents the swishing sound of water sprayed. (L rosare).

The next V has /r/ as initial sound to denote repetition, but the next sound is not a fricative but the semi-Vl /w/. In the SS of the language /w/ stands for opening after closure. If we examine the movement of the

lips while pronoucing /w/, the reason becomes apparent. The lips are closed, then opened in a longtitudinal movement. This is the reason it is used as an infix on the morphological level to denote extention or augmentation of movement.

Ex : [dæ:ra] to turn round J (L rondus is a MI of this)
[dæwara] to maneuver, to turn in circles

If we return to the V [rawæ:] we notice that after /r/ which stands for repetitive movement, and /w/ which stands for opening after closure, there is a long VI, which denotes away from, extention from source. It means movement or opening of water from source. This verb is rather interesting because it has three different meanings, one in CA, one in L and one in OE. The three however are congruous with the semantic content of the verb. The difference is due to the different environments they have gone to.

In CA the verb means to have enough water to drink, to have enough to give one's cattle and also to give plants to drink. In L where the environment is not the desert environment of scarce water, so that enough to drink can mean opening of water, but where there is enough rain and where there are rivers, the verb means to channel water, to open it so as to give the land to drink, hence to irrigate. (the /g/ in the L V is due to /y/ in the CA supine [rayan] /y/ : /g/ by CC).

In the language of the Saxons, who had great nordic seas to contend with, an opening of water meant open sea, hence OE rowian means to row, to sail, go upon water. Not one of the three languages has changed the basic semantic content, but each pictures it relative to the environment it is found in.

When /r/ is found in medial or final position it means constant or continuous movement, such as the movement of rivers and streams. Many Mod Eng nouns have this feature due to the SS of the language. We shall give a few examples of Mod Eng words and their CA cognates :

river [nahr], water [maTar] stream[sarayatu] ripple[rabraba] brook [berqah]. The word for sea in L, CA and OHG are the cognate forms L marus, OHG bire, CA [baHr]. /m/:/b/ by AC.

In its capacity as prefix /r/ retains its significance as symbol, for L prefixes, like /re-/ and /de-/, have retaind their significance. (see 7.24).

20.11 /b/ as a symbol :

The second consonant we shall examine as symbol is /b/. It is the first sound in the alphabet after vowels, and the sound that uses the first organ of speech or the lips. /b/ is a bilabial stop. Since it uses the first organ of speech, (the lips are closed then opened after closure), /b/ stands for beginning or start, initiation, invention.

Ex : [badaea'] (OE beginnan, CA [badæ'n] to begin
[bæsaga] to burst (OE berstan)
[badaɜa], invent, initiate beauty or spendour (L bellus)
[bæladae] to build (ME byden) (OE bold means house)
[baena:] to start building (L ponō)
[bae:na] to become apparent [OE beòn]
[bæraga] to protrude, to jut out (hence OE burg, CA [burg] mean tower)
[bæracæ] to bend over (from this V comes the N brook above)
[bæ:ra] to become arid, to start drying, (OF barein Mod Eng barren)

20.12 /b-r/ :

Let us now take the two consonants whose value as symbol we know a little about and see what we get.

[rab'bæ:] /r/ stands for repetitive or continuous movement, /b/ for a movement that starts, with /r/ it is a movement that starts over and over again. The verbs means to bring up, to rear, to take care of as guardian or parent. To bring up a child, plant or live thing, is a process that starts anew with the dawn of every morn. It is not something that is done once and forgotten, the GS stresses the fact.

[baraæ'] /b/ stands for start, creation, invention, and /r/ for repetition. In this V /b/ comes first, it is the central theme, whereas in the previous verb, the repetitive process was the central or prime movement. This verb means to create, to give birth, to mould. to carve out. Birth, creation come first, but the process of birth or creation is an act done by degrees or in phases. it is not sudden, nor is it a single movement. This accounts for the presence of /r/ in medial position. The final sound is a Vl stop, or /æ'/. In the SS of the language one of its uses is as the antithesis of /q/. Which is high up in the palate (as we shall see below) /æ'/ to the contrary is low, back open. It means flat, low down as

symbol. Hence the earth or ground. It appears after /b r/. in this verb because at the end a new and separate entity appears on the ground.

Supposing we change the position of the cons placing /æ'/ in medial position. The verb is [baæ'ra] /b/ stands for start, initiation /æ'/ for low down upon the ground and /r/ for a repetitive process. A repetitive process upon the ground is started. It means to make a pit, hole or well into the ground CA [be'r] is the cog of L putus (/e'/: /t/ in L) and OE beora (depression grove) is the cog of CA [bue'rah].

20.13 /m n ɜ/ :

In CA there are two nasals, /n/ and /m/, and one nasalized sound /ɜ/. A nasal or a nasalized sound is a sound where the air passage is obstructed and has to go through the nose. It is therefore symbolic of obstruction, hence impediment, forbidding, negation, prevention or opposition, or slow, even movement. Each of these sounds has its symbolic significance in the language and the three are used together as the antithesis of the fricatives and stops, for fricatives on the whole symbolize a tremulous or vibrating movement, while stops on the whole symbolize single action which may be quick or abrupt.

20.14 /m/ :

Let us begin with /m/ in initial position. It is the most ponderous and heavy of the three. In this position it dominates the word and stands for lack of movement, stop of movement, a settling down, or slow, smooth movement, depending on what comes after it.

Ex : [mæcaθa] to remain [mæθælæ] to settle [mæ:la] to remain in one's place but to sway to one side. Notice the long initial Vl in this verb which often means movement or growth in place.

In final position /m/ is a sound that closes the lips, in fact it is the antithesis of /b/ (stop vs nasal, opening of lips vs close of lips) and is the symbol for closing, ending, finishing, final condition.

Ex : [læm'ma] to put back in place after spreading, [ram'ma] to put back together broken things [tam'ma] to end, complete [ɜæm'ma] to spread completely everywhere [zam'ma] to pull shut.

20.15 /n/ :

The next of the trio is lighter than /m/. It is often the symbol for negation or opposition (cf with Mod Eng neg. no, not)

Ex : [nahæ:] (to forbid) [nafæ:] (to deny, refute), [nahara] (to rebuke, scold forbid). We notice that this last verb has a syllable more than the previous two and that the difference between it and [nahæ:] is the final /r/. In other words if the act of forbidding is repeated or done in more than one way it becomes scolding or rebuke. (I forbid you to do so, but you were wrong to, in the future I absolutely forbid it etc).

20.16 /m n/ :

Since both /n/ and /m/ stand for lack of movement, what would a word that contains both mean? In CA there is the V [næ:ma]. It means to go to sleep. We notice that first there is /n/ for the symbol of lack of movement, then a long Vl which stands for soft, gentle, smooth movement, then the more ponderous /m/ which stands for complete rest or a complete settling or stillness.

/n m ϶/ have also the ability to symbolize leisure, lethargy luxury, unhurried rich, soft undulations. This symbolic value is due to the long sweeping sound of nasals. It is not abrupt like stops, nor sharp and repetitive like fircatives.

[man'na] means to give generously, to give in profusion (L root in words like 𝔪𝔲𝔫𝔦𝔣𝔦𝔠𝔞𝔯𝔢, but not L 𝔪𝔲𝔫𝔲𝔰 which is sometimes confused with it and is in CA [man+sab] pref + V).

The V [næ϶ imæ] containing the three means to live in luxury, in easy circumstances, in bliss, in riches. The adj [næ:϶ em] means soft. (for more on this V see 2.15).

20.17 / ϶/ :

The third of this trio is an inchoate sound, which some Arab linguists believe to be the first sound uttered. Since it has no sharp distinct features it has the symbolic value, besides the above, of the equivocal, the hesitant, the double faced, the shifting, the undecided. When it occurs with /m/ which denotes a ponderous settling or heavy movement it portrays a slight swaying or shifting.

[ɜæ:ma] to float or drift upon, [mæ:ɜa] to be indefinite, mixed, uncertain, shifting.

It occurs with /n/ in the V [næɜ æ:] (to mourn for) it symbolizes the movement of slow sadness that remains with loss. (L naenia funeral song) comes from this root, and so does OE mournian which is [manɜa:] funeral rites in CA. It is a pre+V.

Whereas [ɜanæ:] means to meet obstruction or difficulty, hence a difficult or heavy duty or task (L onus comes from this root).

[mænæɜæ] is a verb that begins with the ponderous /m/, then followed by /n ɜ/. What is its semantic value? /m/ stands for settling, heavy rest, /n/ for opposition and /ɜ/ completes the picture by symbolizing obstruction. The V means to prevent, hence a deterrent, a fence, wall obstacle or fort for defence.

To prevent here is used in both senses that is to deprive or to defend and protect. Thus [mæ:neɜ] is a barrage, barrier or wall (L moenia comes from this V).

Since /m n/ are of the sounds favoured in L, we find quite a few of these verbs, either alone or in mergers, just as we find many cognate forms beginning with /h/ in OE. The favourite sounds help to make the words carrying them survive and the opposite is also true.

20.18 /f/ as symbol :

/f/ is the next sound whose significance as symbol we shall examine. /f/ is a labio-dental. The air has to make way for itself between the lower lip and the upper front teeth. It is therefore the symbol of opening, making way, cutting a way out, making a slit, fissure, or opening where there was none before, an opening forced or inaugurated, a breakthrough.

Ex : [fætæHæ] to open, [faSalæ] to separate, [faraqa] to divide, [fag'ga] to make a way. The N /fag/ has as cog in OE weg and in L via and it means road, wide passage. [fæsæxa] to slit open, [fagara] to burst open, [fæsaqa] to go out of or form [fasala] to spring from.

If we look at the verb [far'ra] (Mod Eng cog to flee) /f/ stands for making a way for one's self, and the /r/ in the GS pattern denotes that running or galloping away is not a single action but the repetitive motion

of movement of feet or horse. The double /r/ in the GS pattern have a quick repetitive sound portraying this action.

There exists in CA the N [fæm]. What does it mean? /f/ stands for opening, and /m/ in final position stands for close. What is it that opens and closes? It is the human mouth [fæm] represents the opening and closing of the lips. OE mup is a MI of this word (see 5.26).

There is another word for mouth in CA it is [boq] /b/ for start the opening movement of the lips and /q/ a uvular sound stands for hollow or cativity (as we shall see below). While this word also means mouth, it means the mouth cavity from lips as start to the uvula. L cog bucca.

20.19 /l/ as symbol :

/l/ is a flap. It is pronounced by the contact of the tongue with the roof of the mouth or alveolæ. It is therefore the symbol of extention, of reaching out from a particular point, linking two things together by extention, stretching out or flowing out. Since its message is extention, the semantic content of the word it belongs to depends to a great extent on the other consonants in the word.

Let us compare between two words having /l/ as initial sound like (lab'ba) and (læm'ma). /l/ stands for reaching out in both cases but /b/ and /m/ contrast. The first is the symbol of beginning or starting the second is of completion or closure.

[læb'ba] means to flap, to make or start the same movement again and again from a particular point. Since /l/ is a flap the semantic content of the V gives the movement done by /l/ but since it is followed by /b/ as GS this movement is started over and over again. In CA to flap again and again or to be pendant and swaying. Figuratively it means to make the brain work, flapping or movement in the brain, hence growing bright or intellingent.

When /l/ is followed by /m/ as the second cons in the word and /m/ stands for end and completion, the word means to put together in place, to gather what was scattered back in place, to complete a heap or mass. Since the pat has a GS this denotes that the movement of collecting is a repetitive movement. Extention of hand to collect /l/ then putting it all together in a mass /m/. As we have mentioned before /m/ is a ponderous sound and is often symbolic of a heavy or motionless thing, a mass, a block, etc.

Let us now compare betwen /Ta:la/ (to grow tall) and /tæ:læ/. Both verbs have /l/ in final position. The difference is between /T/ a strong aspirated palatalized plosive and /t/ a dental stop.

In producing /T/ the tongue has to touch the back of the palate in a strong movement, since it is a plosive. It symbolizes rising above, over, towering above. Rising + extention can mean only to grow tall.

/t/ its antithesis means to be low down, to flow, not to be in control, not to have the upper hand. With /l/ such a movement of perplexity comes from outside, form an external factor, hence it means to bewilder through magic.

Its TV [tælæ:] means to be low down and to follow. We notice that the long Vl in the second syl, corroborates the effect of extention of /l/ so it does not mean to extent towards only, but to pursue or followed, figuratively it means to relate, to read or recite to pursue story hence to tell (OE tellan is the cog of CA [telæwatun], from the same V comes OE talu (tale).

20.20 /x/ :

The consonant /x/ is a phoneme pronounced far back in the throat. It is a fricative, but the heaviest of the fricatives and the one furtherest back. It has the same movement in the throat as saliva or matter coming out of the throat or nose. In consequence, it is very often used to denote that something has gone wrong, materially morally or figuratively. A statistic count shows that fifty percent of the words beginning with this sound are of perjorative semantic content, against only 12% for /g/ and 8% for /H/. In CA (until today) if this sound is used alone it is an ejaculation denoting, disgust or revulsion.

Ex : [xæs'sa] to grow less, become mean or poultry, [xæbæθæ] to become cunning, mean of poor quality. [xasara] to become foul, ruined, degenerate [xaraba] to become a ruin, a waste, desolation. [xa:bæ] to become helpless, dull, shiftless (L cog hebes), [xæraSa] to tell lies. (xædæɘæ] to cheat, deceive. [xæbæta] to become low means servile. [xaDaɘa] to submit, become servile.

In final position it can mean much sound, which need not be pejorative. [rax'xa] to rain heavily, [bæx'xa] to spray with much water or again and again [Saraxa] (to scream) OE screaman.

20.21 /g/ :

/g/ is a voiced stop. It is as sound half way between /c/ a voiceless velar stop and /q/ a strong uvular voiceless plosive. It is heavier than /c/ and less strong than /q/. It represents strength, but strength of even, steady character.

Ex : [ga:dæ] to be generous, noble, good. The N is (guwd), OE cog gō d (good). The adj derived from it is [gæ:d] (which means grand, great. L cog grandus. [gabila] to become great or of gigantic propositions. OE berg (mountain) is a cog of CA [gabal]. In L we find the word people, whose cog in CA is [gibilah] which means people of big stature. /b/ : /p/ by AE, /g/ : /p/ by EC.

/g/ has another symbolic value, it denotes accumulation, putting together, gathereing. This second symbolic value is the source of the first.

Ex : [gæmæɜæ] to gather, OE cog, gathrian, [gabeya] to gather from here and everywhere. From this V comes CA [gabeyah] (tax) its L cog is gabulum, OE gafol, Mod Fr. gabelle. Gr. gebur [gæ:ba] Mod Eng cog to get /b/ : /t/ by AC.

If we look at the verb [baraga] (to produce) and its TV [bar'raga] (to build a tower) OE and CA [burg]. The first sound /b/ stands for start, the second /r/ stands for repetitive movement of placing stone over stone. The GS pattern augments the effect, and /g/ stands for the accumulated mass, the final result, the tower or citadel.

Each of the four fricatives : /θ/, /š/, /R/ and /z/ is symbolic of a particular kind of vibration, or wave-like movement depending on its phonetic features.

21.22 / θ / :

/θ/ is a dental fricative. It is a slight, delicate sound and it represents therefore imperceptible, or very slight tremulous movement, hence inside feelings or emotion, fermentaion festering, slow, fine, small movement, or emotion that may be strong but that is worked up internally.
[θæɜæbæ] to sneak in a wave like movement [θuɜbæ:n] or (snake) L cog serpens, is derived from this verb.
[θæbara] to become wasted or die, annihilated slowly.

[θænæ:] means to bend and to plie or twist in two.
[θæ:ra] to become angry, furious, hence to rebel, L furia, OE þeora.
are the cog of CA [θæwarh] and mean fury, rebellion.

Supposing we compare this verb with [θææ'ra]. In the second V there is a medial Vl stop. What does it imply? This Vl stop symbolizes deep down, or deep inside. The V means to avenge, seek revenge or vendetta. The difference between it and [θæ:ra] is that while [θæ:ra] denotes open fury, [θææ'ra] denoted fury kept in the heart then acted upon, it is not a spontaneous movement but a movement retained deep inside then brought out.
[θæ:læ] means to loose mental balance or sanity.
[θærada] means to cut little pieces of bread to into broth.
[θærθara] a frequentative verb means to chatter, to keep speaking on and on, saying nothing in particular, making small talk. We notice that both the V pattern and the repetition of /r/ help to give this effect.

20.23 /z/ :

The next fricative /z/ is a voiced dental sound, that has a buzzing effect and a quick repetitive movement. It is therefore symbolic of two things. Buzzing noises, and this symbolic value is to a great extent onomatopeic and also increase, flourishing, or quich, brisk walking or running. This later symbolic value is due to the quich buzzing effect of the sound.

Ex : [zaæ'ra] (to roar OE rarian is its cognate) [zæ:ma] to below or roar in subdued menacing tones. Its cognate is L fremo. [zaHara] to groan, [zagæla] to sing or say doggerel. [zæn'na] to buzz. [zaradæ] to increase, grow plentiful, [zaxaræ] to become full and overflowing, used usually for rivers. We notice the /r/ in those two verbs. [zaræfa] to grow plentiful, [zac'cæ] to grow finer or better. [zar'ra] to glitter and to grow.

The frequentative V [zalzala] is used for quick abrupt movement, to shake, or quack. /z/ for the shaking, away movement /l/ for extending back return to previous position, then back again and so forth [zaɜzæɜæ] to unsettle. /z/ stands for the movement away, while /ɜ/ stands for the movement of settling, so that the effect is of something that would settle down but is being removed from its place, which is the semantic content of this verb, since it means to unsettle, to uproot to shake from the roots.

20.24 /R/ :

R is a sound very close to French rolled /r/. It is slighlty nasalized and has a point of articulation further back. One must bear in mind that the whole articulation of Romance languages was brought forward by the loss of the six back consonants. Being pronounced rather back up in the palate near the nose it has become the symbol for coming over, above, upon. From this basic symbol others have been derived, since to come over means to sceern, to veil, to flow, to overpower and also to obscure, hence to deceive to cheat, to get the better of.

Ex : [Ræ:ba] to be unseen, screened, hence absent. [Rærabæ] to set or vanish, used for the sun [Ra:ra] to recede in the earth, used for water, to dive deep in water [Ræma:] to be coverd.

Since night covers day or is the obscure part of the twenty four hours that form a day, we find /R/ used rather often to express darkness, different degrees and moments of darkness, different hours of the night.

[Ræbæšæ] to grow dark, [RaTasa] to be twilight [Rasæqa] to be in the dead of night. [RamiDa] to obscure [Ræšæma] to be fully dark.

To keep someone in the dark is to deceive him, hence [Raš'ša] to cheat, [Rædara] to betray, [Ral'la] to get the better of, to deceive in division OE. gealla. (bile)

If we look at the verb [Rar'ra] to be deceived in, to be conceited or in error about. The N is [Rorour] L cog error.

/R/ stands for going over, hence going beyond limit or out of the right way, and /r/ for the repetition of this act, further on. It means error in judgment or becoming conceited.

20.25 /š/ :

The fricative /š/ is voiced and the air has to pass divided between the teeth, so it has become the symbol of division, separation, from the whole, or doing things by degrees, growing, rising, receding by degrees. Since human emotions are not one but many and varied it is often used to express emotion.

Ex : for division in parts. [šagara] to have or produce branches [šæbæcæ] to be tied together in a netlike movement. [šæt'tæta] a freq. V, its Mod Eng cog is scatter, [šbæɜa] to become full up.

(an act that is performed gradually) [šaršra] to cut so that an edge or hem has many teeth, a freq. V [šæH'Hæ] to recede. [šæxara] is to snore. This V is ononmatopocic as well as symbolic. /š/ here denotes the noise done by the sleeper /x/ also shows that it is an ugly noise coming from the back of the palate and /r/ shows that it is repeated. (Mod Eng has replaced /x/ by the final /n/ found in the supine).

We find the following verbs express emotion :

[šæhæ:] to wish for, to desire, [šæ:qa] to long to go to, to miss [šægaba] to become unhappy and pineaway, [šægana] to be unhappy miserable (Mod Fr. N chagrin) CA sup [saganun] [šaqiya] to become miserable and face hardships. [šaguɜa] to become bold, couragous [šægæ:] to be sad. The V [šæɜæra] means to feel, but not with the senses, with the heart, mind and whole being. The N [šuɜ uwr] means feeling. Someone who feels, or is sensitive in this manner is [ša:ɜer]. Its OE cog is scop (see 1.7).

20.26 Contrastive pairs :

There are six pairs of contrastive sounds in CA. That is consonants that occur in pairs, where there is a more fronted and a back variety of a sound which can be recognised as the same, except for such contrasts (front back, or voiced, voiceless, stop, plosive) /q c/ /H h/ /T t/ /S s/ /∂ ∂h/ /dD/.

We shall deal with these sounds here opposite each others, which is their salient feature, not forgetting that they have other roles as well in the SS of the language, just as we have dealt with the salient feature of each of the preceding sounds, putting aside the finer details of their roles as symboles in this outline.

The contrastive sounds serve to give more accuracy and wider range by giving antithetical semantic content. The more back of the two sounds represents, stronger, more dramatic, or violent action, dominance, oppression, as well as other contrasts like high up and down below, light and dark, black and white which we shall examine in each pair. Generally the more front sound represents more clever, more discreet, more adroit and thoughtful action, while the back ones represent the opposite

tendency towards, hard, powerful, thoughtless action, coarse rough, or abrupt actions also belong to the back consonants.

20.27 /q/vs/c/ :

The first pair we shall examine are /q/ and /c/. /q/ is a uvular plosive, while /c/ is a velar stop. When pronouncing /q/ the air is released after closure high up in the palate, an abrupt movement. /q/ is symbolic of two things, a powerful movement of cutting, smashing, breaking and a movement of rising above the ground or making a cavity, symbolized by the point of articulation far back near the uvula. There are over twenty verbs of cutting in different ways in CA all of which begin with /q/.

Ex : [qaSama] to cut, break back of. [qaTaɔ a] to cut in two. It's OE cog is cuttan, [qaS'Sa] to cut with sharp instrument. [qad'dæ] to break harshly [qaD'Da] to assault or leap upon, savaging. [qarama] to bite [qašaTa] (to skim, [qaDaba] to cut, strike with iron bar. [qarša] to crunsh.

We notice that most of such verbs have another of the back consonants together with /q/ because they represent violent, abrupt ways.

The second symbolic value is that of dome, cavity. It is found in verbs like [qab'ba] to rise above the ground in circular manner. From this V come L caput, and Fr cupole. CA cog [qobah]. The V [qam'ma] means to be at the top, the N [qcmah] means mountain top. Its Mod Eng cog acme is taken from Gr.

[qaT"Ta] means to rise above, if used for fire, but to cut on one level, if used for hair. From this verb comes the N [qeT] in CA which means cat in Mod Eng. and is found in other IE languages.

/c/ is used for more discreet action, and actions of covering, pressing down, in contrast with the rising movement of /q/.

Ex : [cabata] to press, to put down, to frustrate.
[cabasa] to press, to Stifle [cæhala] to mature.
[cæfara] to cover, hide, (its OF cog is cuvrir) [cataba] to write
[carama] To be kind, good, generous.

Let us compare between some of the verbs beginning with /q/ and those beginning with /c/ using minimal pairs.

[qab'ba] is to rise in circular manner as we have shown above, but [cæb'bæ] is to pour upon the ground a liquid, hence making what was a solid flat.

[cætæmæ] means to press or close so that liquid does not flow.

[qaTama] is to break harshly, unevenly.
[cadæra] to pour water, to have water change purity, grow murky.
[qadira] to have power or dominion or control over. The N [qodrah] is found in Ger as craft.
[cæd'dasa] to collect. amass together, press on each other, press down.
[qad'dasæ] to hold high, hence sacred, holy.
[qadimæ] to come forward, OE cuman.
[cædama] to hurt bruise, Mod Eng contusion has as cog in CA [cadæmah] it is derived from L. a pressing or internal bruise.

We notice from the above that these verbs are sometimes contrastive and sometimes not exact contrasts but certainly different. This is due to the fact that we have chose minimal pairs, where the rest of the sounds in the word do not change, so change takes place only where the contrast between /c/ and /q/ exists, nevertheless the element of contrast is clearly apparent.

20.28 /T/vs/t/ :

The next pair of sounds are /T/, an alveolar palatalized plosive and /t/, a dental stop. These two sounds are rather close and are not used for contrast but for expresing two levels of the same thing. The stronger sound gives the higher, stronger level and front dental /t/ the lower, weaker, or less flourishing one. In the dimesion of up vs down they do contrast however.

Ex : /tæ:ra/ to flow, to sneak or run, /Ta:ra/ to fly up
/tæ:qa/ to wish for, long for, [Ta:qa] to have the ability or power to do [tæbæ϶a] to follow, to trace, [Taba϶a] to stamp, portray, type. [tæ:ba] to return penitant, [Ta:bæ] to become well, to flourish, [tæ:sa] to become like a bull in fatness, [Ta:sa] to become like the moon in beauty.
[tærafæ] to have enough water, hence opulence, luxuray, [Tarafa] to be on the edge, above, hence of the select, the best The N [tarf] means tœ, OE cog toe).

20.29 D/vs/d :

The next pair are /D/ a strong alveolar palatized plosive and /d/ a dental stop. These two are often used to express contrast. /D/ stands for oppressive, violent, wrong or dramatic action, while /d/ often represents, discreet, clever, intelligent, dextrous, action.

Ex : [Dara:] to become wild, fierce savage. The CA adj from this V is [Da:ri] it has as cog L dirus, and OE deór.

[dæra:] to have knowledge of, to be cognizant, have exprerience in.

[Da:mæ] to judge wrongly. The N is [Daym] /Pl/ [Doyum]. The OE cog of this pl. is dóm, Mod Eng doom.

[dæ:mæ] to be lasting, durable. The L adj durabilis comes form this V.

[Daragæ] to slit open, [dæraga] to scale, go up.

[Dal'la] to go astray, and the adj [Da:l] has OE dól as cog (dull).

[dæl'la] to show the way. Mod Eng to lead is a Ml of this V.

If we look at the verb [Da:da]. What semantic content does the two have together. It means to oppose, to be contrary to, the opposite of. The N [Ded] means against, and the N [aDa:d] means antithesis in language.

The contrast of /d/ vs /D/ is often used to express the difference betwen night and day. Night always has a small /d/ while the broad light of day always has /D/. There are several such verbs in CA which rely on this contrast to denote light and darkness, but in IE languages where /d/ and /D/ have become one, this contrast is completely lost.

Ex : OE dun is [dæ:cen] in CA, it means of dark colour. OE deorc (dark) comes from the RV [dæga:] the N is [duga:] the pl is [dowæ:g]. It is this pl that we find in OE as deorc. The Mod Eng N dawn comes from ON dagan. which is [dægan] in CA it comes from the RV [dægana] to be faint light, due to clouds or overclouced sky.

Mod Eng 'day' comes from an old Aryan V dhagh, which is [DaHa:] in CA and means the broad light of day, or full sun.

While L dies, comes from the V [Da:a°] to give light. The nouns derived from it in CA are [Dawe°] and [Dayæ°] the cog of L dies.

The Skr dah, to burn, is in CA [DaH'Ha] to suffer from sunlight or great heat. The Mod Eng V to 'dye' comes from [Daheya] to give reflection, or hue. OE deáh.

20.30 /S/ vs /s/ :

The next pair of consonants to be compared are /s/ and /S/. /s/ is a spirant, and /S/ is a palatalised version of this sound. /s/ represents

smooth, sleek, easy, flowing movement, while /S/ symbolizes strong, stern, deliberate, firm, determined action. It is a symbol of strength.

[sæ:ra] to go, walk, [særæ:] to go or travel by night. [sæ:mæ] to go where one desires, [sæ:la] spreading or opening of waters. In CA it means rain water upon the ground or in a river bed. In OE it means to sail upon waters, OE seglen. The difference is due to environment as we have seen in the case of [rawæ:] above (to row).

/S/ to the contrary singifies steely strength. [Salibæ] to become hard and strong, [Solb] means steel, it has as cog in OE style. (/b/ : /t/ by AC). [Salidæ] to become strong and compact. The adj [Salid] has as cog in L solidus, Mod Eng solid. While the adj [Sa:rem] has as cong in Mod Eng stern.

[sæcæta] (to be silent) L silentum has as cog in CA [sæ:cet] while [Saraxæ] has as cog in Mod Eng to scream [sæcæna] is to be still, while [SaHæ] is to wake up, and [SaH'Hæ] is to become strong and flourishing. [sæhula] means to be easy, the adj is [sahl]. Its L cog facilis has undergone metathesis (see 9.5). While [SaɜUbæ] means to be hard, difficult.

The Mod Eng adj easy is in CA [yasiyr] with medial /s/ and smooth /y/. From the above examples we see some of the uses of /s/ and /S/. These two symbolize the opposition of quiet vs strong movement, ease vs difficulty, great sound vs silence, and they have other contrastive values as well.

20.30 /H/ vs /h/ :

/h/ and /H/ are two sounds which have both contrastive and a few affinitive values. Both are gutteral but /H/ is voiced and pronounced further back, while /h/ is voiceless. /H/ makes a sharp sound in the throat, a sound of the friction or making strong contact of two objects. In consequence it is the symbol for the keen, sharp, trenchent and clear cut things.

[Had'da] to give a boundary, edge [Hægaza] to place behing a hedge OE haga. [Ha:Sara] to besiege, [Hasæra] to squeeze. It is used figuratively to mean bitter feelings or regret. [HaS'Sana] to fortify by a wall or fort [Hæs'sa] to sense. L senses (comes from this RV). OE wis (/H/ : /s/ by EC) [Hæsæda] to envy. [æHana]. Gep ahn (grudge, bitter feelings).

We notice that it is used for both material and as well as emotional semantic content. Whatever is sharp, acid, keen.

/h/ a light, slight sound in CA is used for the weak, light, slight, inconsequental. Being a weak sound the semantic content of the word is often decided by what comes after. [hæ:næ] to be of little worth, easy to do, of no consequence. The adj is [hæyen] its OE cog is hēán, another adj from the same verb found in OE is hwon, CA cog [huwn] low, abject, humble of little resistance.

Since it is a weak sound, the semantic content of the word, unless it speaks of weakness alone, is decided by the sounds that come after it, that is it has less influence over the sounds that come after it than a strong sound would. Form this quality emanated its role as pointer to what comes after it. All demonstratives in CA begin with /h/. [hab'ba] means to start up in fury, or in chivalry to help someone. Its Mod Eng cog is to hop. Here the semantic content is that of /b/ to start and of the GS pattern a strong or augmented movement. /h/ is here to introduce, usher in or draw attention to the start or hop after it. Sometimes it negates rather vitiates the semantic content of what comes after it, like [hægara] and [gæra:] the latter means to run, but [hagara] means to desert or leave. A weaker slower movement. There are numerous verbs beginning with /h/ which describe weak, slow, lazy movement like [hæbiƏa] to walk slowly and lazily [hæzula] means to become weak and inconsequential, while [hazuæ°] with a final Vl stop, which symbolizes bringing to the ground, means to sneer at, make little of [hæ:la] means to be awed, terrified (see 8.16).

20.32 /∂/ vs /∂h/ :

/∂/ and /∂h/ are two sounds used very sparingly in CA. /∂h/ in particular. Both sounds are interdental fricatives, the difference is that /∂h/ like /S D T/ is palatalized. This latter sound is used for strong and oppressive movement, while /∂/ to the contrary is used for the little, quick light movement.

Ex : /∂halama/ to wrong. [∂hafara] to triumph upon. Originally the V meant to put one's claw or nail into, then it came to mean to triumph upon. L cog triumphus is taken from Gr.

Now let us look at how /∂/ is used. Alone it is the symbol of light, small movement or vibration. The cons after it decides the quality and extent and other details.

Ex : [∂ab'ba] /∂/ for movement or vibration, /b/ is the symbol for starting. Moreover the V has the GS pat so it means to start over and over again. The V means to go here and there, start out in different directions, to move about.

The frequentative of this V is [∂ab∂aba]. It means to create waves or to vibrate. The pat signifies repetition, because waves or vibrations are a repetitive movement that starts over and over again, hence the cons /b/ for start and /∂/ for tremulous movement.

/∂al'la/ here also /∂/ stands for weak shaky movement, and /l/ is the symbol for extention, hence it is extended, remains for a certain duration. The pat is a GS pat, it signifies the constant or repetitive nature of the movement. It means to grow weaker and weaker, hence to be adject, grow humble, weak, poor and lowly.

20.33 Conclusion :

The brief survey given above of the role of the differnt consonants on the level of SS in CA is only an outline, moreover it does not comprehend the finer shades of the roles of each cons in the SS of he language, nevertheless it answers some of the questions that the previous chapters have brought to mind. It explaines why CA verbs are constructed in paradigms of minimal pairs. They were so constructed because each sound has its significance in SS of the language, so that to change the semantic content one has to change only one consonant. It answers the related question of why these verbs are semantically close to each others, why they share certain semantic features. This is because they share the same symbols. They are constructed according to the same principle that underlies sentences in modern languages.
Ex : The boy eats (an apple, a biscuit, steak, rice etc).

Every time the semantic content changes in accord with the change that takes place in one item. Similarly in the case of V paradigms, change takes place in accord with the change that takes place in one consonant.
Ex : The girl eats an apple.

Here the contrast is of the same quality as we have in the contrast of /d D/ and /s S/. Th first item changes giving new semantic content even though the rest of the sentence remains the same, or in the case of a CA V the rest of the V remains the same.

Now we know why CA is a language of vast propotions. It is because its verb system is constructed upon the same principles that sentences are constructed upon and modern linguistics states that languages is infinite (see Chomsky 1965). Every time one can produce new semanitc content by changing one item (a cons, a VI, a pat etc.).

The level of SS in CA is still intact and operative. Time has not altered or made obsolele its significance. In other words the rules of the SS underlying the language have not been changed and are still productive. The native speaker can change the semantic content of the word he is using or give a different shade to it by a change of pat even though he may not be fully aware of the underlying theory.

Since CA has not changed thoughout time and has the same origin as L and OE-a fact that the preceding chapters have proved for languages that share on this scale and on all levels (excluding that of SS which has been accounted for) have to come from the same source, then CA is ultimately the ancestor of L and OE.

This hypothesis explains to us a number of phenomena that we could not account for without it. It explains why we find cognate forms of CA in any IE language we look into. It explains why it is relatively easy for the researcher to trace a word in CA and in another IE language, but more difficult to trrace a word in two IE languages of different branches. Because when tracing a word in CA and OE, for example, one has to study one set of rules, the rules OE has submitted to, but when tracing two words of two different branches one has to study the rules that the first branch has submitted to, then the rules the second branch has submitted to, then try to reconstruct the original form, a process which is very often inaccurate. There are three operations involved. When dealing with CA only one operation is involved, granted that we already know the rules of CA. If we do not then two operations instead of three are involved. One has to bear in mind that the reconstructed form may not be identical with the original, for old languages have sounds (like /ɜ/ and /∂h/) which are not found in modern languages so that the whole process becomes doubly difficult. It also answers the question why CA is so systematic and clear -cut, while other languages reflect only a part of this ancient plan on which it was built.

We may ask what is the relationship of CA to other Semitic tongues? Linguists have all agreed that these are sister languages, but examination of other Semitic tongues shows that they have all undergone loss of

phonemes and certain patterns. The loss of phonemes alone denotes that the underlying system of SS is no longer operative. The only exceptions are south Arabic and Abyssinian. But these have undergone changes of pattern as well as some phonetic alterations. CA is the only Semitic tongue that has not changed. We notice that the two Semitic tongues that are closest to it geographically are the ones who have retained most of their phonemes. Isolated in the heart of the desert CA has remained untouched.(1) It is not the sister language of Semitic tongues, it is the mother language of Semitic tongues. All the people who have immigrated and mixed with other peoples have had their tongue altered to a certain extent. While CA has retained its purity. Now we know why the old tribes of Arabia have named CA (Al FusHah).

1) For comparison of CA with an ancient Senitic tongue see appendix.



APPENDIX

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN AND CLASSIC ARABIC

The language of the Ancient Egyptians has been deciphered in the last century and studied from different orientations. In this appendix we propose to examine it simply as language. Its position in relation to CA. Its immense importance from the historical, social, religious and evolutionary angles are outside the scope of this work, except where they explain to us a linguistic phenomenon. That is the reason we shall have to give a brief note on the history of this language. (for more detailed accounts see works given as reference).

1. Note on the history of AE :

According to Egyptologists the aboriginal inhabitants of Egypt had a primitive existence, they knew no means of writing language and buried their dead in pieces, in graves that contained no drawings, no engravings or decoration. Later a few Germanic tribes came and settled beside these early peoples then gradually merged with them after settling beside them for sometime. Then there came from the north around 4000 B.C. an Asiatic people of far more advanced culture. They settled first in the north of the country, then gradually spread southwards, their language, their writing and their customs spreading with them. Their religion which they brought from their original home had very great and elaborate rituals and it began to take hold of the natives hearts. We are told that the religion of ancient Egypt became a merger of that of the early peoples together with or dominated by the religion of these Asiastic ones. The results was very lofty and noble ideals together with some curious superstitions.

2. Examination of AE :

The first thing the linguist notices after examining the language is that he has to deal with two distinct sets of phonetic and morphological rules, together with scores of words of Germanic origin. Fortunately the three languages have CA as ancestor, so that we can estimate to a considerale extent what rules each language has submitid to. One must bear in mind however the impact of the three languages upon each other, the

influence that their proximity or merger is likely to produce. Fortunately we have the **Book of the Dead** which the Asiatic people brought from their home of origin so that we can tell to a considerable extent what their language was like before contact with the language of the aboriginal inhabitants of the land.

We shall give first the overall rules that the language has as a whole, then proceed to examine words from each of the three languages that have merged separately. Like IE languages this language has suffered heavy losses. We record the major ones below.

1. Loss of SS

2. Loss of the following /T D d g l ∂ dh z ∍ R S/. No distiction is made between consonantal /w/ and /u/ in writing so it is difficult to tell wether the Ancient Egyptians did distinguish between them or not. Similarly no distinction is made between Vl generally and consonantal /y/. It is quite possible that such a distiction was made in speech but not in writing. /l/ is found in a few words, mostly proper names of foreign origin. (like Cleopatra).

3. Loss of distinction between 2 cons, 3 cons, 4 cons V, that is the merger of the three groups.

4. Such merger signifies that the rules that govern the formation of the other categories from V have also been merged, in fact most of them no longer operate.

5. The natural result of this is the loss of the original patterns of CA or most of them and the loss of their original significance.
   Needless to say that the above losses are very grave indeed and that they have been the cause of further losses in the lexicon of the language, in its mophological and syntactic rules.

This language is only a fraction of the mother language. Just as other languages which have lost the underlying system of SS have been very much reduced, so has this very old language.

After this brief enumaration of losses it is time to examine words from the three languages that have merged separately. The language of the aboriginal inhabitants of the land we shall call AE1, the Germanic element we shall call AEG and the language of the Asiatic settlers we shall call AE2.

3. AE1 :

Examination of this language shows two salient features. It is a language derived from CA that has separated from it at a very remote period in pre-historic times, so that it has undergone very drastic changes.

The overall rule that this language has submitted to is a deletion rule that deletes words of two or three syl to one syl. The main patterns of this language are in consequence CV and CVC. These two patterns exist in CA but in a very limited number of words. The first belongs to particles and prepositions while the second may be used for words derived from 2 syl V of the pat CVC'CV.

Words that already have this pattern in CA have not changed in AE

Ex : AE1 hes CA [hes] (sound, voice, hence singing in AE)
AE1 sa CA [sæ] (causative part in AE, and future particle CA)
AE1 sah CA [šah] (ewe, cf with Ger schaf which is a cog)

Words from three syl V in CA have undergone severe deletion and even words from 2 cons V have also undergone some deletion as the examples below reveal.

Ex : Words from 3 cons V :
AE1 hru CA [næha:r] (daytime), AE1 heq CA [Hæ:cem] ruler
AE1 ner CA [nesr] (vulture) AE1 sab CA [θæ϶lab] (jackal)
AE1 bu CA [bawæ,æ°] (to liv , dwell, OE bóa)

Ex : Words from 2 cons V in CA :
AE1 mu CA [miyæh] (water), AE1 hap, CA [hebæh] (donation, gift)
AE1 hai CA [hayl] (hail, OE cog hægl)
AE1 xu CA [mux] (brain, spirit) AE sa, CA [sæ:qa] (to drive, lead)

In this ancient tongue the Vl /a/ is used very often in initial position. Egyptologists differentiate between three different symbols for /a/ in AE. These do not correspond with any phoneme we know systematically in CA but the three are used instead of the missing sounds in this language. Thus /q ϶ T R ∂h / as well as other sounds are replaced by a Vl. The replacement of /϶/ by /a/ is a cors one comes across quite often in both IE languages and in some Semitic tongues as well, but the replacement of the other cons by a Vl is rare except in this language.

Ex : AE1 ur CA [ЭariyD] (broad) AE urit, CA [car'ratu] (chariot)
AE1 aa CA [Эaðhiym] (great) AE au CA [Эoqdah] (knot)
AE1 aah CA [Эoqd] (necklace). The two last words are from the same
RV [Эaqada] (to make a knot, OE cog cnittan) (see 14.13)
AE1 arb CA [qerab] (jars, pots) CA [qabed] AE apt (what holds, clasp) AE1 tua CA [duЭæ:˚] (prayer).

The pre a :

This pref, found in all Semitic tongues as well as IE ones, is found in this language also but because of the deletion rule the language has submitted to, verbs preceded by this pref are severely reduced.

Ex : AE1 ab CA [ebtæhaga] (to rejoice) AE1 aq CA [aqbælæ] (to come forward)
AE1 ab CA [æbal'la] (to wet, to purify) AE1 am CA [aTЭama] (to feed, eat OE cog etan)

4. AE 2 :

This language also is derived from CA. It is much closer to the latter than AE1 because it has not submitted to the deletion rule of AE1. Here we find words form 3 cons RV and 2 cons RV which have not undergone deletion. We find reduction of Vl, a feature that all languages which have lost the system of SS go through. We cannot accept this Vl reduction as significant since the Ancient Egyptians had no accurate system for writing Vl and sometimes did not write them at all, but only the consonants. The Vl are supplied by Egypologists to facilate reading in this language.

Also there is no difference in writing between cons /w/ and /u/ and no difference in writing between /y/ and /i/. In speech it is most probable that such differences did exist.

Ex : Words from 3 cons RV :

AE2 xesef, CA [xæsæfæ] (to disappear, to recede)
AE2 hetem CA [HaT'Tama] to destroy, AE2 xetem, CA [xæ:tem] (ring)
AE2 netem CA [naЭyim] (blessing, pleasure)
AE2 hetep CA [HaTab] (offerings in AE, fuel, what is burnt in CA)
AE2 heqt CA [Heqd] (ire, envy) AE2 hebs CA [lebs] (cloths)

We notice that in this language /ɜ/ is replaced by a stop in medial position as it is in IE lagnuages (cf no.4 above with OE *niten* from the same RV) and that /l/ is replaced by /h/ or deleted. This phonetic rule was taken in all probability from AE1. Actually there are phonemes in the names of the early dynastics that no longer appear in the language (see below) as a whole. This language retains /q/ and does not replace it by a VI like AE1.

Ex : AE2 qema CA (qemah) (top completion) (cf with Gr acme)
AE qert CA [qart] (part)

Distinction is made in writing between it and /c/ in most cases. There are three symbols which signify a /k/ sound in AE.

One of them probably is a homophone having no difference in phonetic qualities.
Ex : AE2 qebh CA [cab'bah] (a cool drink)

Sometimes words which have /g/ in CA are found having /q/ in AE2. This is possibly due to the fact that AE1 has no /g/ so that after merger; after loosing /g/ AE2 replaced it by /q/ in certain words (cf with L and OE where the opposite tendency exists) and by another stop in others.
Ex : AE2 qenb, CA [ganb] (side) AE2 tenh, CA [ganaH] (wing)

5. Verbs In AE :

Due to the changes the language has undergone the AE2 verb no longer has the clear divisions into 2, 3 and 4 cons V and the morphological rules that govern each group are no longer separate and distinctive. In structure AE verb is closer to the CA one than L and OE. It occurs more often before the subject if it is a trans V, as it does in CA.
Ex :

AE2	xeper	metet	nebt	Tem	
CA	[xuliqat	calima:t	nabetah	min	tam]
Mod Eng	created	words	sprang	from	Tem

xeper : is the V [xalaqa] in CA and it means to create to bring into being to give life, here it is in the passive voice.

metet : or [calima:t] in CA is the pl of [calimah] it has undergone deletion because of the none existence of /l/ in AE then EC. (This V is clamō in L) in CA [cælæma]

nebt : is a word derived from the verb [næbætæ] to sping, to produce shoots, to emanate. In CA it is a participle in this sturcture, in AE it is most probabaly the same thing but since the shape of a word does not decide its category it is difficult to tell for certain.

min : is a proposition that connects the participle with the final Prep phrase it is found in CA and Mod Eng but not in AE which dispenses with such particles rather often, possibly only in writing?

Tem : is the name of an AE god. In CA it is from the verb [tam'ma] to complete, to make perfect. The N would mean the perfect one, the complete being.

While CA has a special tense for the passive voice, AE does not moreover the N and V may have the same shape in AE.

The V xeper or [xalaqa] in CA does not exist in OE but a N denoting that it once existed is found. It is folk or CA [xalq]. It means creation, men, women, children. In AE this word is xeperu. The cors is /r/ : /l/. /p/ : /q/ OE has changed the initial fricative to /f/ because /x/ does not exist in OE and /f/ is a favourite. (for a rather different interpretation of this sentence see Sir E.A. Wallis Budge. P.142, 1966).

6. Pronouns in AE :

As we have seen from the examples above this langauge retains many of the 2 Syl and tri-cons words of CA.

The personal pronouns

AE2	CA	Mod Eng (not cog)
anuk	anæ	I
entek	antæ	you
enteten	antuma	ye two
entusen	antum	ye

AE2 has devised pro-forms from the above to accomadate the other persons (he, she), CA [huwa] and [heya] OE he and heo repectively). These are not found in CA or in IE languages. We notice that it gives the pro-

forms the endings -k and -t. These are found as separate pro-forms in CA and usually come after nouns as suffixes in both languages.

Ex : AE2 anxui-k, CA [uðunay-Kæ] (your two ears)

In this language /k/ comes after nouns to denote possession for the second pers sing as it does in CA.

An interesting feature is the formation of the reflexive pronouns in this language. In CA the reflexive-pronouns are formed by the addition of the possessive pro to the N [næfs] *OE* 𝔣𝔫𝔞𝔰𝔱. OE is one of the very few Germanic langagues where the reflexive pro are formed in the same way. In AE there is the same manner of forming the reflexive pronouns.

Ex :

AE	CA	Mod Eng
tes-a tes-k	nafs-y nafsa-ka	myself yourself

The N [næfs] and AE tes are cog forms. This N has undergone deletion in accord with the rule of AE1. OE 𝔰𝔢𝔩𝔣𝔞 is the cog of CA [sæ:lef] and comes from another RV. It is almost a synonym however, since in CA it means previous life, previous self or ancestors.

In the three languages the process is the same. Other IE languages, like Fr and Ger. have separate forms to form the reflexive pro. In L the word self or 𝔦𝔭𝔰𝔢, (the cog of self) is used to form the intensive pronouns.

7. Numerals :

When dealing with numerals in OE and L we have seen how the same word or two words form the same RV can mean two numbers semantically, when the RV allows such usage. There are cognates which are the same on both the morphological and the semantic level, and there are morphological cogantes which have slightly different meanings or mean two different numbers on the semantic level. We shall call the first cognates and the second morphological cognates or MC. These have a different referent in the two languages compared.

Mod Eng	AE	CA cogantes	MC
one	ua	[waHed]	
two	sen	[eθnayn]	
three	xemet		(xamsatu) (five in CA)
four	fru	OE feower	
five	tua		twa (two in OE)
six	sas	[set'tah]	
seven	sefex	[sabɜan]	
eight	xemennu	[θamaniyah]	
nine	pest		(basT) (extention in CA)
ten	met	[ɜšasrah]	[ma:æh] 100 in CA
hundred	šaa		[ɜašarah] 10 in CA
thousand	hefennu	[alfun]	

In the numers above the numbers 1 2 6 7 8 are cognates both morphologically and semantically. The No. 3 means five in CA while five means two in OE. No. 4 is a cogante of OE feower but not CA [arbaɜæh] which comes from a differnt root. No. 9 means a spreading or extention in CA. There has been a criss-cross movement between no 10 and no 100. What means ten in CA has come to mean 100 in AE and vice versa. Such movements one comes across accasionally in related languages. The number 1000 is a full cognate in the two languages. We notice that the number 4 is a cog of OE and not CA, the number 5 is a morphological cog of OE and not CA and the number 7 has a pattern closer to that of OE than CA even though it is a cogante in the three languages. This phenomenon is discussed further below.

8. AE and Cairene Arabic :

Cairene Arabic is very close to CA. A person who speaks it can understand CA without any difficulty. Nevertheless we find some traces in its phonetic rules and in some words from AE.

Ex :

Mod Eng	AE	Cairene A	CA
bag, flusk	arp	erab	[qirab]
heart	ab	alb	[qalb]
with me	maia	maƐaya	[mæƐi:]
Yesterday, previoulsy	embah	embareh	[al bareHah]
lady, woman	set	set	[sæyedætu]

In the first two words the cors /a/ : /q/ is shared by AE and Caire Arabic. Instead of CA /q/ a Vl is used in both languages. In No. 3 the final long Vl of CA which is symbolic on the level of SS with a longtitudinal movement of going along with or following, is replaced in both languages by /a/ which on the level of SS is symbolic of the static.

In No. 4 the word means yesterday and may be used to mean figuratively in the past. Here the /l/ of th def art of CA is replaced by /m/. This is a tendency found in AE, Cairene Arabic. It is found also in some old Arabic tongues.

Cairene Arabic is much closer to CA than AE. These are only traces of an older phonetic system found until today among the inhabitants of the country.

9. AE L and OE :

CA is a huge language, so that only a fraction of it would suffice to form a new language. It is possible to have two or more languages derived from it which have nothing in common. In actual fact one usually finds cognate forms in languages from the same origin. The question one would like to ask here is how much does L and AE have in common? And how much does AE and OE have in common? A sample taken from one hundred CA and AE words which are cognates give the following percentages :

AE	CA	L	OE
100	100	28	41

Assuming that our sample of one hundred words is 100% and this is a very small smaple, we find that while 41 percent of OE words have AE cognates only 28% of L ones do. Let us examine some of these cognates.

10. Germanic Languages and AE :

That Germanic languages and AE should have certain words in common is not strange since ultimately they come from the same source. What we shall investigate in this section is AE words that have submitted to two sets of rules, the first Germanic and the second the rules of deletion of AE1.

Ex :

Mod Eng	CA	OE	AE
1. heart	[qalb]	heort	hat
2. mother	[um'mun]	modor	mut
3. top	[qobatu]	top	tep
4. shirt	[qamiys]	scyrte	šent
5. four	[arbæЭatu]	feower	fru
6. cow	[baqarah]	cue	cawt
7. hall	[sarh]	hæl	ha
8. Sir	[sayed]	θeód	aθi
9. flame	[lahab]	bál	bes
10. same	[siwæ:']	ON same	sma

1. This AE word has the cors /q/ : /h/ and /b/ : /t/ which are typically Germanic. It has undergone further deletion in accord with the rules of AE1. In AE1 /q/ is usually deleted and /b/ is not changed to /t/. Moreover there is the same word in AE1 having the indigenous cors of AE1 it is ab.

2. This word has also undergone the cors of Germanic Languages then deletion and the change of /d/ to /t/ in accord with the rule of AE1. Its masc couterpart which does not come form a Germanic source is CA [abu] or [ab'bun] and remains abu in AE.

3. This word has the same cors as Germanic languages than the reduction of VI.

4. No. 4 has undergone the Germanic cors then the change of /r/ : /n/ in accord with the rules of clustering of AE.

5. 6. 7. 8. have also undergone first the Germanic then the AE1 rules of cors. (see 9.6 for more on No.8)

9. This word appears in OE as swa a rel pro. In CA it is an adjectival and it comes from the RV [sæ:wa] to make equal, like or the same. We notice that OE is closer to CA while AE is closer to ON in this word having changed /w/ to /m/.

This kind of correspondence is not very frequent it occurs in about 10% of AE words, nevertheless it has to be accounted for. Can history offer an explanation?

According to history Thotmose III fought the Libyans routed them and drove them out of Egypt. These Libyans were fair haired blue-eyed invaders from the north. We are told further that the rulers of the Egyptian oasis used to hide treasures in secret places for fear of raids from the Vandals (see reference).

If some Germanic tribes have come and settled in Egypt. When did this take place? The linguistic evidence we have got points out that this must have been in between the first and the second great immigrations. That is after the people who spoke AE1, so that their language has submitted to the rules of this language, but before AE2, because words from AE2 have not submitted to the rules of AE1. They came after these rules were no longer operative, while the words from Germanic languages came during the dominance of AE1, that is when its rules were operative.

11. Overall movement of phonemes in AE :

In the table below we give the different percentagesof the occurence of each of the phonemes of AE as a whole in initial position. These percentages are approximate nevertheless they allow a glimpse into the changes that have taken place in this language after the merger of its three components.

1. A	18.5	10 b	3.6
2. S	15.6	11 r	3.1
3. h	9.2	12 q	3.1
4. m	8.5	13 k	2.9
5. x	7.4	14 p	2.3
6. t	7.4	15 θ	1.2
7. n	5.4	16 e	1.2
8. s	4.9	17 f	.5
9. u	4.9	18 i	.3

1. The phoneme /a/ occupies a very high percentage in initial position in this language. It is a tendency found in AE1 (see above) which appears in the rest of the language after merger but only to a certain extent in AE2 and AEG. The preference of one or two phonemes above all others is a charecteristic found in languages which have lost the system of SS.

2. Next comes /s/. In this language it is used very often in initial position because it is a merger of two CA sounds /s/ and /S/, then it is a favourite in initial position in AEG and occurs rather often in initial position in CA so that we should expect it to do so in AE2 which is rather close to CA. If we add to this the fact that it takes the place of missing fricatives like /z ∂, ∂h/ and sometimes /θ š/ even though they exist in the language, we are able to understand the cause of its being used so very frequently.

3. H is used rather often, though less than the two favourite, sounds because it is a merger of two sounds in CA /h/ and /H/ and because in AEG it replaces /x/, while in AE2 it replaces /l/ after the latter was lost from this language due to the influence of AE1.

4. /m/ is used often in initial position although it is sometimes deleted when found in medial or final position, a Germanic tendency, because the prefix ma- of CA which changes V into other categories (7.26) has become merged with the stem of

the word becoming an integral part of it and no longer separable. In consequences it is found rather often in initial position.

5. /x/ is a sound used often in AE though in CA it is the symbol of the ruined, the disgusting, the mean or corrupt. In both CA and AE when /x/ is used alone it is an exclamation denoting disgust or indignation. We assume that it has taken the place of sounds like /q θ g/ in AE1 long after the SS of the language has become obsolete and its connotation no longer significant.

   While /h/ replaces /x/ in AEG, the opposite tendency exists in AE1 and AE2 where it has become a favourite.

6. The phoneme /t/ is used rather often it takes the place of other stops like /d D T/ and sometimes /g/, since these sounds exist no longer in AE.

7. N is well accepted in the three languages merged, it is used rather often in CA, so one should expect this percentage for it.

8. Although /š/ is sometimes replaced by /s/ it replace it in certain words and is acceptable in the language as a whole.

9. /u/ occurs rather often in initial position because AE did not differentiate between the Vl /u/ and the semi-Vl /w/ in writing.

10. /b/ is acceptable in the three languages although it is used a little less than it is used in CA.

11. /r/ is used rather sparingly in initial position, although it occurs more often in medial and final position due to the patterns of AE.

12. 13. AE differentiates between /q/ and /k/. Both sounds exists in the language. /k/ belongs mainly to AE1, while /q/ belongs mainly to AE2 since AE1 changes it to /a/ and AEG changes it sometimes to /h/.

14. In AE /p/ has been introcuded although it does not exist in CA. It takes the place of both /b/ and /f/ in certain words but it takes the place of /f/ more often when the latter occurs in second position or in a cluster like : Ex : sper, CA [sæfæra] (to travel) OE cog faran scpt CA [šefætu] (lip).

15. /q/ that this sound is used at all is probably due to the influence of AE2. It does not seem to have existed in AE1 and is often replaced by /t/ in this language. It is sparingly used in the language as a whole.

17. /f/ is used very sparingly and is probably due to the influence of AEG.

16. 18. Vl other than /a/ must have been used far more often than this table denotes, but because they were often dropped in writing or casually represented we find these very small percentages.

From the table above it is evident that there is a definite correlation betwen the loss of certain sounds and the increase in the use of others. What one sound looses another gains, but loss of sounds, as we have mentioned above, always implies reduction in the size of the lexicon in propotion to the loss incured and that words which contain favourite sounds tend to remain while words which contain sounds that have been lost tend to be dropped from the language.

12. The names of the kings of the early dynasties or the Old Kingdom :

When discussing proper names in L and OE we found that proper names are the nouns that change least, moreover they are not fortiutous creations but have significant connotations. Below we shall give some of the names of the early kings of the Ancient Egyptians and their significance in CA.

The first king in the first dynasty is called Menes by Herodotus. The CA cog is [mæn'na:n] and it mean the munificient, the generous, the bountiful. The word was given a final-s because this is the Greek way of ending nouns. Menes was the founder of the first dynasty, his capital was Thinis, which cors with CA [Tamas] and it implies that it was covered by [Tamiy] (alluvical mud from the Nile) every year (from the same root comes Celtic Tames) but, according to Herodotus, he needed more space, then he wanted a capital nearer to the center of his new kingdom, for he had just united upper and lower Egypt, so he founded Memphis at the jucture of the two lands. The N Memphis cors with CA [mænfæz] and it means more space, an opening, an outlet.

The names of some of the kings who came immediately after him are:

Djer : CA [ga:r] it means the neighbour literally, but figuratively in CA it means protector, patron

Djet : CA [gæ:d] it means the grand, the great

Den : CA [Da:em] the ruler, the judge (cf with OE dema)

Adjib : CA [ɜægiyb] the marvellous, the extraordinary, the wonderous

In the nouns above we notice that CA /g/ cors with /dj/ in this language. In AE1 there was no /j/, but in many Arabic dialects /dj/ and /g/ are considered allophones. In the lands of the fertile crescent /dj/ replaces CA /g/ which is the older sound of the SS. It is quite possible that these Asiatic people came from that direction(1). These names show that originally AE2 had the sound /dj/. It replaced /g/ of CA. When the two languages AE1 and AE2 merged, we find neither /dj/ or /g/. /dj/ had already replaced /g/ in their home of origin, and after merger with AE1 /dj/ also was dropped.

13. The names of the Ancient Egyptian deities :

In the names of the deities of Ancient Egypt the same tendencies in the language as a whole may be observed. The name of each deity is pronounced in three or four different ways depending on where it is pronounced, in Memphis or Thebes, in the south or North and by whom.

Ex :

CA	Gr	AE2	AEG	AE1
1. [xonfis]	cnouphis	cneph	Hnef Hnouf	Nef Nouf
2. [æθiyr]	ather	Athyr	Hathor	Atar
3. [bahey]		Poiih	Pooh	Ooh.
4. [bahæe°]				

1. The first is the name of the one of the deities of Ancient Egypt, which has the head of a scrabe. The word in CA is [xonfis]. The Greeks, and there was a very large Greek colony in Ancient Egypt, have made it cnouphis, it was abbreviated in AE2 after contact with AE1 to cneph, and in AEG the initial /c/ or /x/ was changed to /h/. Both sounds are changed to /h/ this language. Finally the people of AE1 call this deity Nef or Nouf. They have reduced the word to one syl. The word scrabe is found in the language, in all

probability taken from AE2, as xeper. In OE it is ceafer (cf with Fr cafard). It exists side by side with the name of the deity taken from an older version of the word, closer to the original CA form.

2. This word means the air or atmosphere in CA. It has the same meaning in L and Gr. The Ancient Egyptians made it the name of the goddess of spring, the third month of the Ancient Egyptian year, possibly because of the beauty of the weather at that time. In AE2 the word retains its original pronunciation, but AEG places an initial /h/, a favourite sound in this language, before it. AE1 changed the original fricative to an dental, a cors one comes across rather often in AE1 and that exists in Cairene Arabic until today.

3. This is the name of the moon goddess. The word does not mean moon in CA but it is an adj often connected with the moon. It means great splendour, brilliant splendour. In AE the initial /b/ was changed to /p/ in AE2 and AEG while it was completely deleted in AE1. There is an older version of the word it is Bai, which corresponds with CA [bahey], if we recall that AE1 changes /y/ to a Vl and deletes /h/ completely. This version of the word probably comes from AE1. (For more on the AE deities see Pantheon Egyptien by J.M.J.F champollion 1986).

14. The book of the Dead :

The book of the dead is a very old writ that the people of Ancient Egypt used to give the dead a safe journey in the other world. Some of its texts were very old and are believed to have come from the original home of the speakers of AE2. In ***the book of the dead***, Sir Wallis Budge says :

and the mistakes which occur in them, prove that the copyists were dealing with texts that were at that remote time so old as to be unintelligible in many passages, and that they copied many of them without understanding them. P.xxix.

In consequence we find some phrases and some words left by Egyptologists untranslated. These are to us the most intelligible, for they have proved to be very close to CA.

1. Seker was a deity that lived upon the limbs of the dead The word [Saqr] in CA means hawk or vulture, so it is quite understandable that they should have such fear of it for their dead.

The N sahua is not translated. In CA it is [SaHwæh] it comes from the V [SaHæ:] to rise, to wake up. It means rise or resurrection of the dead or his double or Ka CA [qariyn] (complement).

2. The Bennu bird: comes from CA [ba:r-un] good, benevolent. It is the bird of good or happiness (cf L cog bene).

3. The deceased was given hekau to say in order to have his wishes and needs supplied. The word is translated as "words of power", which it is. In CA the V [Hacæ:] means to relate, to argue, to tell stories. From this verb comes [Hecayah] (a story). (CA /y/ is often found as /u/ in AE).

4. Aten : is the sun god in AE. In CA it means great pit of fire of intense heat and the word is [ætoun].

5. Amen is another AE god. The adj [æ:men] in CA mean secure safe in peace or peace giving.

6. maat : the N is in CA [mæ∋æ:d] and it means promise, appointment. Thus an expression like usr maat-Ra-meri Amen. means the vow of the appointment of Ra beloved of Amen.

7. Usr : is [uSr] and it comes from the V [aSara] to make a firm knot and it means figuratively vow or oath of great power.

   maat : is given above

   Ra : is a highly abrreviated form of CA [zorour] L cog aurora it means early morning light or rays. It is the name of the sun god.

   Meri : is the adj [mura:d] in CA and it means, the chosen, the beloved. It is made of the verb [radæ] preceded by the pref [mae-]. This epithet is still found as a proper name in Egypt, but it has not entered the language through AE but directly through CA.

8. Samaaxeru : is [sæmæ°axerah] in CA and means eternal sky the word (samæ°-un) occurs in OE as sammanum (See Bosworth P. 873). The difference between the CA and AE word is the difference of the masc sig, vs the fem in CA.

9. The expression maa kheru has been subject to many interpretations it was interpreted as "victorious", "veridique". "machtig der Rede" and "he whose words are right and true". This expression means in CA "with the good". It is [ma∋a l xayr].

[maЭa] is a preposition which means with (cf with Ger cog mit) [xayr] means good. When the definite art is added it becomes with the good. It appears that those who were good on earth went with the good.

We are told that the recital of a certain chapter (see Budge p. cxxix) gives the dead the power to rise like the Henmemet. The word in CA is [Hæmæmætu] and it means dove or pigeon.

9. bent einθ rest : is in CA [bent Эayn rušd] and it means daughter of the eye of wisdom. Each one of these words has a cog or a word from the same root in IE languages.

Bent : is the fem of ebn whose morphological cog is brother (see 2.6) einθ/ is [Эayn-un] in CA, Proto-Ger augon* (eye).

The root V [rašada] means to attain full metal powers. In consequence it is used to mean maturity, wisdom or right. The structure of this language is closer to CA than any of the languages we have previously examined.

7. In this S AE has the same structure as CA. The nouns in the genitive case are placed in the same order to denote possession as in CA without any intervening particle. This juxtaposition is the mark of the genitive case. The difference between it and CA is that in CA one may use inflection or one may mot, while this language has no inflection except in a few remnants.

8. In this example of N+adj the N precedes as in CA. As we have seen previously (19.10) this is due to the underlying SS of the language and in AE it has been retained.

9. A preposition preceding its object, an order one finds in CA, AE as well as IE languages.

10. Three nouns in the genetive case. Each N precedes the one it belongs to without any interveing particle. The order is typical of CA, and is the same as Nº. 6 above.

15. Conclusion :

In the pages above we have given a brief picture of AE. Our examination of the language has been sketchy but it has revealed the main characteristics of the language and proved that AE, like other Semitic tongues, has been derived from CA. This language is immensely old, the language of the oldest civilization in the world, moreover examination of this language has shown that AE1 must have been derived from CA at a very early period in the history or rather the existence of mankind. If we add to this the information that CA is the only language we know of based on SS, the only language were individual sounds have significance, then we can grasp how immeasurably old CA is. It is undoubtedly the mother language of Semitic as well as IE tongues and we believe that should research on the lines of the research upon which this book is based is undertaken, we would be able to acertain that other languages also were ultimately derived from CA, in all probability all the different tongues of the world.

1. For further proof concerning the origin of these Asiatic people see W. A. Budge 1985 P. XXXI.

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رقم الايداع بدار الكتب

7051/1989

Al. Ahram Press - Kornesh EL Nil

مطابع الأهرام بكورنيش النيل

بسم اله الرحمن الرحيم

ملخص عن الكتاب

Classic Arabic as the Ancestor of Indo-European Langauages out Origin of Speach

العربية الفصحى أم اللغات الهندية والأروبية وأصل الكلام

هذا الكتاب مبنى على بحث استغرق عشر سنوات قامت به السيدة تحية عبد العزيز اسماعيل وتخصصها قواعد اللغة الانجليزية التى كانت تدرسها فى جامعة عين شمس قبل التفرغ لهذا البحث . والكتاب يتناول المقارنة بين ثلاث لغات قديمة اللاتينية والسكسونية وهى اللغة الجرمانية التى بنيت عليها الانجليزية الحديثة واللغة العربية الفصحى . ولقد كشف البحث عن معلومات عدة هامة هى كما يلى :-

أولاً : أن ٨٠٪ من أفعال اللغة السكسونية من أصل عربى و ٧٥٪ من أفعال اللغة اللاتينية من أصل عربى وبالتالى الكلمات المشتقة منها مثل

Anglo-Saxon	عربى	Latin	عربى
wara	ورى	regō	أرجو
hean̄	هين	currō	أكرّ
hwon	هون	dicere	ذكر
wyrt	ورد	eō	أوى
daru	ضار	cavus	كهف
hryre	هرير	corus	قارص
hocor	حقّر	cinis	كنس
he	هو	captus	قبِضْ
heo	هى	amita	عمتى
hem	هم	necesse	نقص

كما أن بعض آلهة القبائل الجرمانية وقبائل جنوب الجزيرة لها أسماء مشتركة مثل :

Woden	وُداً	Manon	مناه

وبما أن اللغة الانجليزية الحديثة أصلها السكسونية وتأثرت إلى حد كبير باللاتينية نجد بها كلمات كثيرة عربية مثل

عربى	Mod English	عربى	Mod English
طال	tall	هرع	hurry
قال	call	شكل	shackle
تلى	tell	بدن	body
بلف	bluff	رسغ	wrist
هبّ	hop	وسط	waist
دبّ	dip	صنج	song
رج	rock	هشيم	hay
باطن	bottom	صوت	sound
باله	bale	هيل	hail

ولا يمكن أن توجد لغات بها هذه النسب العالية من الكلمات المشتركة إلا لو كانت من أصل واحد ما هو الأصل ؟ اللاتينية ؟ السكسونية ؟ أم العربية ؟

حسب إحصاء اتخذناه عن عدد الجذور فى تلك اللغات وجدنا الآتى :

Arabic	Latin	Anglo-Saxon
١٦ر٥٠٥	٨٠٠	٢١٤٠ فعل
٢٢ر١٤٠	٢٢٤٠	١٩٠٠ فعل + حرف

ويتضح من الأرقام أمامنا أن اللغة السكسونية واللغة اللاتينية عبارة عن شطر فقط من اللغة العربية على الرغم من أنها من نفس الأصل . إن هذه اللغات طرأ عليها ضعف وتقلص لم يصب العربية ويوجد أسباب لغوية طرأت عليها ثم تاريخية وجغرافية مذكورة فى الكتاب .

ولقد طرأت بعض التغييرات على كلمات كثيرة كما فى الأمثال السابقة ولا تتغير أى كلمة عشوائيا بل كل تغير معناه تغير فى قوانين اللغة وكل تغير له دلالته عند علماء اللغة وسنكتفى بمثل واحد فى هذا الملخص . إذا أخذنا كلمة harbour الانجليزية ومعناها ملجأ أو ميناء نجد أن أصلها فى السكسونية مكونة من كلمتين here beorg وكانت قبل ذلك hunan burg فى اللغات الجرمانية القديمة وهى فى العربية "هنا برج" فكلمة "برج" لم تتغير فى الجرمانية القديمة أما كلمة

"هنا" فقد تغيرت حسب قانون يقضى بتغير المد فى آخر الكلمة إلى حرف (ن) ثم طرأ عليها قانون ثان يغير حرف (ن) إلى حرف [r] إذا وجد حرف أنفى فى نفس الكلمة [by dissimilation]. وكان سكان انجلترا يبنون البروج على الساحل قديماً ليتحصنوا بها من غزوات أهل الشمال (The Vikings) ثم أصبحت منارات تقود السفن إلى الميناء .

وحينما ندرس تكوين الغة العربية نجد أنها مبينة على خمس مستويات (levels) فى حين أن جميع لغات العالم مبنية على أربعة مستويات فقط . لأن الغة العربية احتفظت بمستوى الرموز الصوتية (sound symbolism) SS كما احتفظت بحجمها ، وجميع اللغات الأخرى فقدت هذا المستوى الذى بدء منه الكلام .

لذلك نجد أن كل حرف في اللغة العربية عبارة عن رمز صوتى له معنى حسب مخرجه من أدوات الصوت ى الإنسان .

إذا درسنا حرف الرّاء [r] مثلاً نجد أن اللسان يتحرك بسرعة داخل الفم [trill] وذلك يرمز إلى التكرار فأفعال اللغة العربية التى تدل على التكرار أو الإعادة أو عملية تنفذ على مراحل تبدأ بحرف الرّاء مثل : رجع ردف ردم رج ربا ردع.

كما أن له علاقة وثيقة بحركة المياه لأنها حركة متكررة.

مثل : رخّ رشّ رذتْ روى رسب

ونجد أن هذا الحرف يستعمل فى اللاتينية بنفس الطريقة وبالتالى فى الكلمات الانجليزية المشتقة منها مثل : return, repeat, repeal, reject

وكما أن حرف الرّاء رمز فإن كل حرف فى اللغة العربية رمز له معناه فى SS كما نجد أن كل وزن من أوزان الأفعال والأسماء فى العربية له معنى على مستوى SS ويتناول الكتاب هذه الرموز بالتفصيل .

وبما أن الحرف (phoneme) هو أصغر وحدة فى النطق تصل بنا اللغة العربية إلى بداية الكلام فهى أول ما نطق به الإنسان .

لذلك حينما نبحث فى أى لغة مثل الإغريقية أو الألمانية القديمة أو الهندية القديمة Sanskirt نجد كلمات عربية

مثل : سبعة S. Kr : Sapta قلم Gr. : qualamus

مَهول Mihhil برج O H G : burg

ويوجد فى الكتاب كثير من هذه المقارنات .

كما يوجد فى ملحق الكتاب بحث عن لغة قدماء المصريين وهى لغة قديمة جداً مشتقة من العربية ولقد فقدت مستوى SS وتقلصت مثل اللاتينية ولكن يوجد بها كلمات كثيرة والضمائر مشتركة مع العربية

مثل : أبُ abo خاتم xetem نُهر Neher قطاع Katai يم yma
عين ماء ennu صحوة Sahua خرّ Kher حقد heqt أصر Usr

كما يثبت الكتاب عدة معلومات لم يتسع المجال لذكرها فى هذا الملخص مثل أن اللغة العربية أرتب اللغات من حيث القواعد وأكثرها اقتصاداً من حيث تركيب الكلمات وقوانين اللغة وتلك علامات تدل على رقى اللغة كما أثبت علماء اللغات من قبل . أما اللغات المشتقة منها فقد حاولت تعويض ما فقدت بطريقة عشوائية وغير اقتصادية مما أثر على تكوينها وقواعدها وقدرتها على التعبير.

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